

THE CLEARING HOUSE

A journal for progressive junior and senior high-school people

Vol. X

SEPTEMBER, 1935

No. 1

Editorials

The current issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE marks a change in the editorial staff of the magazine. Dr. Arthur D. Whitman, whose personal genius and professional enthusiasm have been in a large measure responsible for the distinguished quality of the magazine during his editorship, has resigned his place on the staff because of the pressure of his new duties as dean of the recently instituted Nassau College of New York University.

Dean Whitman has been an active member of the editorial staff of THE CLEARING HOUSE during most of the years of its publication. Those who know him only through the pages he has edited as well as those who know him personally will appreciate the extent of his services in bringing the magazine to the enviable position it has attained in the professional field. For our readers and for ourselves the members of the staff extend to Dean Whitman our best wishes for the success of the new college he has been chosen to organize and administer.

Beginning with the present issue THE CLEARING HOUSE will be edited by John Carr Duff. Dr. Duff is unusually well qualified for the editorship. He is young and progressive, vigorous and versatile. He is a forceful writer and a discriminating reader. His professional reputation goes back to the time some years ago when he organized the junior high schools in Uniontown, Pennsylvania, shortly to be numbered among the N.E.A.'s first list of "schools that are prophecies."

From 1930 until recently Dr. Duff has been a member of the faculty of the School of Education, New York University. He organized and directed the Tenth and Eleventh Annual Junior-High-School Conferences held at the School of Education in 1934 and 1935.

Dr. Duff carries the editorship of THE CLEARING HOUSE back into "the field": as supervising principal of the Edgemont School at Scarsdale, New York, which position he assumed September 1, he will see school progress at close range. He will continue to be associated with New York University as a member of the Extension faculty.

We take pleasure in presenting to our old readers our new editor. We are assured that he will win new honors for a journal which with each successive volume becomes more widely noted among professional periodicals.

F. E. L.

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The initial issue of a new volume, and the first lines from the pen of the new editor —these provide an occasion appropriate for a restatement of the editorial policies of THE CLEARING HOUSE. It is more than a statement of policies; it is a reaffirmation of faith as well.

THE CLEARING HOUSE represents in tangible form the faith that its editors and its readers have in the public high schools. It is our wish that every issue may present a wide variety of views on how the high schools may

serve more effectively the aims of education consonant with positive citizenship in the American democracy.

THE CLEARING HOUSE is not unbiased. It attempts vigorously to maintain a strong bias. To keep the pages open to all points of view is to maintain a most radical bias. In choosing articles for publication, however, we must maintain something else also—the high standard of quality that this magazine has achieved. Quality here means, first of all, readability. It is sad but true that not all educators have skill in writing for publication. We receive about ten times as many unsolicited contributions as we have space to print. We use the space effectively in the degree that we are able to choose articles that are readable, concise, accurate, and consistent in presenting some clearly defined point of view.

The article should be practical, which is not saying that it must invariably relate something that has been done, but may very

well project something else that *should* be done. Certainly an article does not have to report the general practice, the *status quo*, in order to be considered practical—there are many, many things in general practice that are not practical at all.

We shall try to maintain in this magazine a proper balance of articles that are philosophical (critical, analytical, "visionary," interpretative) and those that represent specific applications (inventions, techniques, devices) in the science and art of teaching and in the supervision and administration of high schools.

It is a long-standing policy of this journal to print articles from every part of the country, from small schools and large ones, urban and rural. Your contributions will be read with critical interest, and those among our readers who lack the time to prepare formal contributions are invited to express their ideas freely in letters to the editor.

J. C. D.

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Science Education and the Good Life

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G. V. Bruce

EDITOR'S NOTE: *G. V. Bruce, head of the science department of New Jersey State Teachers College, Newark, is a scientist with a conscience. Even if there were nothing tenable in what he has written, it would be a pleasure to present an article as eloquent, as stirring. If this is science, there are many among our readers who will ask for more of it.*

IN THE EARLY days of human thought, man was victim of a whimsical and capricious nature. The unseen wind, the crash of thunder, lurking beasts, hostile peoples, drought and disease, all seemed charged with danger and bent on man's destruction. Certain things were clean and others unclean. Certain ones were to be feared and let alone, others were to be cherished and worshipped. Out of this galaxy of gruesome fears and fantasies and in response to the primal urge for personal security, man created the deity and assigned these forces to the will of capricious gods. As a means of adjustment to a strange and fickle world and a way of escape from its destructive forces, he resorted to the art of propitiation. Thus we have the rise of primitive religion as a mode of human adjustment.

Many of the vestiges of this early mode of adjustment remain with us to this day to burden the mind and to confuse the conduct of man. Social practice is shot through with these early modes of thought. They persist, even in their basest forms, to such an extent that 70 per cent of the entire world today will wear some form of amulet or charm or emblem to protect them from evil spirits, bad luck, or sickness.

When population increased so that the problems of living together in communal relationship again threatened security, there evolved the principle of law and government to regulate human relations. Religion and law have constituted the two great inventions of human thought by which man has sought

to minister to the primal urge for security and for harmonious adjustment with the world of natural forces and the world of social phenomena. Both of these date from antiquity. They have frequently been cruel and ruthless in their application, threatening to destroy at times that which they were designed to protect and save.

It was but yesterday that a third great force for adjustment made its advent. This one we call science. It has revealed nature as an interplay of forces, constant in behavior and conducive to intelligent control, susceptible to quantitative measurement, and therefore accurately predictable. Science has furnished a norm for knowledge—a test for truth, that is *verification*. Some one has likened it to a "reagent for testing the swirl of opinion and logic and emotional appeal that will always be demanding our allegiance." It is this reagent that replaced the flock of angels in the primitive conception of the universe with Newtonian mechanics as a motive force to keep the world going around, and that replaced the earth-centered conception with the sun-centered one. It was this reagent that revealed the universe of knowledge that lies in every egg and seed and replaced belief in spontaneous generation of life with the conception of transmission of life from life. It can and will liberate man from the galaxy of depressing fears and from the debasing struggle with the unknown forces of nature. It can make him master of the forces that preyed upon his ignorance and threatened to destroy him. It can replace a fickle nature with the principle of natural cause and effect, with resultant composure to the human mind.

Thus, modern history records the potential shift of civilization from slave to master. The suddenness of this shift has brought science into conflict with the traditional

modes of thought. Religion, law, and economics have failed to keep pace with this virile mode of adjustment, and we suffer the pains of emotional, physical, and economic revolution which at times threatens to retard and sometimes to defeat the potential benefits that science can offer.

Science has suddenly thrust upon the world changes that no longer yield to the old patterns of thought. In turning the pages of the daily papers one can read:

The nitrogen loss in our unnecessary smoke nuisance is four times the amount that could be furnished by Muscle Shoals.

The erosive action of water removes 400,000,000 tons of soil from our farm land annually.

Electricity, heat, and light are just as essential to the life of a community as air and water and should be supplied without profit.

Each industrial laborer is naturally endowed with 1/10 horse power. Modern technology has placed him in control of 400 horse power of energy.

These and endless other statements typify the verbal counterpart of our socio-scientific era. Their far-reaching social and economic implications derive meaning only through a grasp of the so-called "hierarchies of science knowledge."

Ignorance is diligently stressed today as the inability to think straight, but it means more than this. It means also a lack of knowledge of the basic facts and principles people need to think with. Since the year 1900, animal power has decreased 85 per cent while mechanical power has increased 2,016 per cent. What meaning has this statement in terms of its social and economic implications for the bewildered layman without the story that science can tell? During the last fifty years in the United States the production of coal has increased 736 per cent, water power 1,018 per cent, natural gas 2,166 per cent, oil 3,346 per cent. All this is against a population increase of only 140 per cent. These numbers symbolize the nutrient into which our present society has thrust its roots deeply and the foundation

upon which it bears so heavily. That one who is illiterate in the conceptual areas of energy equivalents, transformation, and conservation must be blind to the far-reaching social and economic meanings of this dynamic shift that marks the present order.

To ignore the basic concepts of science leaves the foundations of our technological living quite as far removed from the comprehension of the masses of our people today as in primitive times when they blindly accepted the essential needs as gifts from whimsical gods in return for propitiatory obeisance. When the average consumer closes the switch the energy flows and that is the limit of his understanding. Everything beyond is in the realm of mystery, in the hands of the gods; and when the monthly bill arrives he performs the act of propitiation in perfect obeisance. If people truly sensed that they were using a service that is the product of human ingenuity; if they could appreciate the simplicity with which man has conceived the counterpart of nature in the form of a machine to do this thing; if they sensed that this was the energy of falling water or the power of oxidizing carbon, both manifestations of the sun upon which no one can claim a monopoly by any moral right, the mysteries of our oft condemned machine age might yield to romance, and the present powers of the exploiter would more likely dwindle.

These productive activities in harnessing nature's energy reserves have resulted in giving man much more leisure time for the cultivation of his finer powers if he will but do so. It is obvious that it requires more character to use leisure time wisely than merely to work. It has been said, "What happens to our future civilization depends primarily on how individuals use their leisure time." The proper use of leisure has created every civilization that has ever existed. The improper use has killed each one in turn. It would seem that the man who has the cosmic view of life and of the world, such as the story of science can tell, is not

so apt to succumb to the inherent dangers of the idle mind. The man who can look out upon the rocks and mountains and let them tell him their story of the great forces that have made them, and tell him what they are and what they were eons before man appeared upon the earth, is more apt to be occupied intellectually in a wholesome way. When it is comprehended that the span of human life upon the earth may be represented to scale by the thickness of a postage stamp on the top of Cleopatra's needle, the vast eras of earth history in the ages that foreshadowed the advent of man will furnish ample area for intellectual recreation and rejuvenation of a cultural and wholesome character, once this area is open to view. The person who can look out upon the sky and there discern uncountable vast worlds and suns and galaxies, so vast, so energetic, and moving with such explosive speeds, so great in all its ways as to hold the mind in awe, has found another area for intellectual exploration, this time in the realm of cosmic space, so full and yet so empty.

The complete story of the world and its meaning has not yet been told if the learner cannot now return to a single drop of water and, in his own mind, enlarge it a billion times and step into its vast empty spaces and there be entranced by the spectacle of another great universe. This time, it is a universe of molecules and atoms, of planetary systems, of electrons and protons even more challenging than the former. Shrink the drop with all its component parts again to its miniature size and find that it is now just as empty as it was before. This should furnish a peep at the vast reserves of subatomic energy that may yield to control when the present available sources have proved inadequate, and after solar energy and tidal energy and atmospheric electricity and terrestrial heat have been directed to human service.

This furnishes too a sense of kinship of man with the rest of creation. He can reflect

that *he* is, likewise, drops of water and other materials just as empty as this drop was; that *he* is atoms of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, sulphur, and so forth, of energetic planetary structures endowed with physical and chemical and electrical properties the same as all the rest. The way this emptiness and structure enable matter to respond to radiation and other forms of energy impact, resulting in chemical, physical, and electrical behaviors, supplies meaning to the phenomena of common experience and strengthens the kinship of man with it all. While *he* himself is a machine constituted of matter that possesses chemical, physical, and electrical properties that are quite well understood and behaves as all the rest of substance in the universe behaves, it seems to be endowed with a fourth property that is not yet so well understood. This fourth property enables this matter to think in terms of you and me. It causes it to question its own existence and meaning. It enables it to perform the unfathomable feat of taking a piece of chalk and writing upon a board some marks that express an idea that you too can understand.

The age-old question may then arise, What happened back there in the dim ages of the past to induce life into just this particular chemical combination of inanimate substance? What particular combination of chemical and physical forces made it possible to happen? If he could start with himself and go back to his father and then his grandfather and great-grandfather and on and on into the dim ages of his past, he would arrive there at the very spot in time and space where it happened. Whatever the beginning was, there has followed an unbroken stream of life. He, individually, is the end of that stream. In him is the total accumulated heritage of the past. What shall he do with it? Should he pass it on or should he break the stream that has flown on from the advent of the first spark of life? Why did it start, was it accidental or by chance, or was it an act of intelligent purposing? If

by chance, would not the law of probability warrant its consummation in many of the other myriads of worlds? If it were intelligent purposing, then why the myriads and myriads of seen and unseen galaxies if not for the abode of intelligent life?

The story of science has now led to the point beyond which it cannot go. It has arrived where religion and philosophy may begin, at the region of speculation and intuition, where freedom of thought should be the right of every man, "Each according to what a man hath."

In conclusion may it not be said that science education can make an essential contribution to the good life in this socio-scientific era? It holds the key, first of all, to the physical needs of happy living for everybody. Pure air, wholesome water, adequate food and clothing, an attractive and comfortable home, means of communicating freely with our fellow men, and freedom to engage in congenial occupations are they. The lack of these has furnished the germ of unhappiness, strife, and revolution throughout the range of human history and they are still denied most of the people. It can furnish limitless areas for that most satisfying means of using leisure time; namely, the exercise of one's own intelligence. It can

furnish unending sources of pleasure which will sublimate the loss of labor and contribute materially to the enrichment of life. Science education may implant the mental attributes of intellectual honesty, open-mindedness, reserved judgment, criticalness, and habit of seeking causal relationships. These attributes will permit the light to penetrate the thin veneer of differentiations that have been imposed by political, social, and religious systems and reveal that mankind is vastly more alike than it is different. We will then exhibit a greater willingness to judge by the individual rather than the class. Science education can do much to replace the apathy of traditional theology with a philosophy of life that is intellectually acceptable and emotionally satisfying and at the same time can preserve and enhance the genuine essentials of religion.

In a word then, science can yield a greater measure of release from the limitations of the physical environment for every one; a wholesome indifference to authority; a positive urge for innovation; dynamic standards of moral virtue and a greater measure of emotional repose, so that all things should work together for the good of them that accept science as a way of life.

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Credit Unions for Teachers

J. D. Hull

EDITOR'S NOTE: Whether we round that promised corner tomorrow or find that it has evaded us again, teachers in common with all others who work for a living will be faced with the prospect of the "rainy day." The editors invited J. D. Hull, principal of the Senior High School, Springfield, Missouri, to prepare the following article, which sets forth lucidly how teachers may economically become their own bankers. We shall be glad to publish comments on the plan outlined here.

THIRTY-EIGHT States, the District of Columbia, and our Federal Government have laws which make it possible for as few as seven persons having "a common bond of interest" to organize a credit union. A credit union is a kind of coöperative bank. It is organized within a particular group of people (such as the public-school teachers of a city or county) and has two primary reasons for existence: first, to provide to members a safe return upon weekly or monthly investments and, second, to provide to members short-term loans which may be repaid monthly at a reasonable rate of interest.

In these days of bombastic advertising, feverish pressure groups, and subtle public-relations counsels it was not by mere chance that our national congress and so many State legislatures decided to make charters available to such coöperative societies. Since 1908 when he first contacted the German credit unions and learned of their methods and experience, Edward A. Filene of Boston has financed and guided a movement for credit-union organization and extension in the United States. This work has been a disinterested public service designed "to promote thrift among the people and to eliminate usury." During the first fifteen years of the movement, the major task was that of securing permissive legislation. During the past ten years energy has been available for actual extension and the number of organizations has increased so rapidly that

at present there are more than thirty-five hundred credit unions in the country. On March 1 of this year a national association of these unions took over the permanent management, direction, and control of the credit-union movement in the United States. Mr. Filene still lends some financial assistance but definite arrangements have been made for the gradual withdrawal of that support, so that in a very few years the national association can be entirely self-sustaining. Individual credit unions have always been and still are self-supporting but financial assistance is still necessary for promotional and extension activities.

Under the Federal regulations and most State regulations, the credit union is a truly coöperative association in which a member has one vote and only one regardless of whether he holds one share or a hundred. Each board of directors decides the maximum number of shares which an individual may hold. It is an organization of members and not an organization of shares. The business of the union is conducted by the board of directors and by officers and committees whose duties are interrelated and yet so clearly defined that they serve to supplement and check each other.

There is an odd number of directors, not fewer than five. The directors select from their own membership a president, vice president, and treasurer. The treasurer is also manager of the credit union and he must provide a bond guaranteeing his integrity. At all times this bond must be large enough to cover all liability and it must be approved by the board of directors. The manager must submit monthly reports of the financial condition of the organization to his board of directors and an annual report to each individual member.

The directors decide upon the interest rate

which borrowing members shall pay (not to exceed one per cent a month on the unpaid balance) and the amount of dividends which members shall receive upon their investments (usually five or six per cent per year). They also decide upon the proportion of profits to be paid the manager and the proportion to be allocated to the surplus fund as a reserve for losses. A minimum of twenty per cent of the net profits must be held in reserve for this purpose.

Applications for loans are made to a credit committee composed of an odd number of shareholders (not fewer than three) who have the entire responsibility of appraising the character and security of a proposed borrower.

A supervisory committee, composed of three members two of whom shall not be directors, is charged with the responsibility of an annual audit and a quarterly examination of the affairs of the organization. The supervisory committee may examine the books of the organization at any time and may declare all offices vacant thereby calling a special meeting of members to elect new officers.

State or Federal officials also conduct an annual audit of the affairs of the credit union.

No loan to a director, officer, or committee member is allowed to exceed the amount of his holdings in his credit union and none of these officials is allowed to act as a guarantor or endorser for a borrower. Loans are made for productive or provident purposes and on consideration of character, or pledged security, or personal endorsement. The experience of the credit unions is that the majority of loans are for amounts smaller than \$100 and that they are made for such purposes as the paying of doctors' bills, taxes and mortgages, insurance premiums, automobile repairs, previous debts, Christmas bills, and vacation expenses.

From the above it may be seen that the credit union is actually a coöperative organization. Each member bears a reciprocal and

mutual relationship to every other member. It is not possible for one individual to purchase a controlling interest in the affair. The only way one can maintain influence in a credit union is by working with and for others. And the organization is so compact and closely knit that each member has an opportunity to study his representatives on the board of directors, the credit committee, and the supervisory committee and to judge their effectiveness.

The credit unions claim to have established during the depression the finest record ever established by any form of banking. Only a few of all the coöperative banks in the Nation have failed. These were some of the older credit unions organized in New York prior to the establishment of the Credit Union National Extension Bureau and functioning on racial lines without the usual limitations and safeguards. Of all the credit unions established by Mr. Filene's National Extension Bureau, not one rural or industrial credit union in the United States has failed and not one has been closed. And this in spite of the fact that the credit unions operate under the same supervision that banks do with the State banking departments charged with the responsibility of examining and closing them for cause. Three and only three credit unions have asked for loans from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. The greatest source of loss to these institutions during the depression has been the failures of banks holding credit-union deposits.

Teachers' credit unions in this country have grown with continuously accelerated speed and power during the past five years of depression. Scores of teachers' coöperative banks are saving members thousands of dollars annually in reduced interest payments and paying members thousands of dollars annually in reasonable dividends. Two of the most active and vigorous teachers' credit unions are at Detroit, Michigan, and at Kansas City, Missouri. The Credit Union National Association with offices at 5 Park

Square in Boston will furnish to interested persons the names of the teacher managers of any or all of these credit unions in various parts of the United States. Each month sees the organization of new units. At the present time the State Education Associations of Minnesota, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut are initiating State-wide developments of teachers' credit unions.

It is not difficult to understand why the credit-union movement has grown rapidly during the depression. Even during the thriving twenties many individuals viewed with suspicion and distrust the increasing complexity and impersonality of our business structure and they have been glad to simplify and make more personal some of their business transactions. Investors who have suffered losses from their investments in enormous impersonal concerns have been anxious to transact business with a manager and a board of directors whom they knew and could judge as trustworthy. They have been eager to attend a meeting of fellow shareholders holding "a common bond of interest" instead of signing over proxies for some annual stockholders' meeting to be held in a distant metropolis.

Stark necessity has overcome the native fear which most folk have for institutions strange and novel. Borrowers harassed by loan-shark companies have been anxious to reduce their interest rates from three and one-half per cent each month on the entire amount borrowed to one per cent each month on the unpaid balance.

There are reasons why public-school teachers should be especially interested in the formation of credit unions. Either because teachers are fundamentally good moral

risks or because they are especially timid and susceptible to public opinion, they do usually pay their bills and are quite generally regarded by credit rating bureaus as among the very best credit risks of any professional or occupational groups. Thus regardless of what the reason for it may be, the fact remains that teachers constitute good material, in the way of risks, for the formation of credit unions.

Because they are considered good risks, teachers are continually being invited to become customers of the loan-shark companies and many of them do become regular and consistent victims. Persons who have investigated the matter in various communities, preparatory to the establishing of credit unions, have usually been astounded to learn the large number of teachers who were paying exorbitant interest rates.

Teachers generally have been concerned about the increasing interdependence and complexity of modern life. They have been anxious to preserve the largest possible amount of individual freedom and at the same time to secure intelligent group control. Many have felt that coöperative business enterprises are destined to play a large part in the solution of the economic difficulties now facing the American people. North European peoples noted for their energy and intelligence have utilized coöperatives to help in the maintenance of a life which is much more satisfactory than the life in those European countries which allow the least freedom to the individual.

Teachers should encourage coöperative enterprises in this country and welcome every opportunity actually to "act with and for others while thinking for themselves."

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Education Through School and Community Coöperation

W. S. Dakin

EDITOR'S NOTE: As senior supervisor of rural education for Connecticut, the author has an abundance of evidence from his own State to support the principles he offers here. Is it not possible that the greater forward thrust in education today comes from the country, not the city?

MUCH IS BEING said these days regarding the use of leisure. Carefully chosen words define it. There is a persistent tendency to distinguish between leisure and other categories of time, but why? To what purpose? Normal child growth is practically continuous. Whether school keeps or not, there is for the wide-awake child a constant need for new and stimulating activities. These must be varied to suit changing emotional and physical needs. They must lead progressively towards higher levels of understanding and more efficient control of skills. The increasing complexity of modern living provides a welter of experiences—some worthy, many harmful. Recognizing the potency of environment in character formation, our schools are seeking to make direct contacts for children through field trips, studies of community resources, and the use of concrete material assembled by the pupils themselves. This groping towards realism is handicapped by the traditional cleavage between formal education and the vast range of activities in which children pass some ten hours of every day outside of school.

To plan for leisure time as something apart from employed time merely perpetuates a distinction that is becoming more awkward from year to year. This cleavage is limiting the education called formal and placing the stamp of triviality on experiences called extracurricular or informal. It is herein recommended that all elements affect-

ing the education and development of children be reviewed and plans formulated to coördinate the formal and informal into patterns that will enhance the educational value of all school, home, and community experiences for children.

To formulate such plans there must be a better knowledge of the child's life outside of school as well as in, for each work day, week-end, holiday, and in vacation time. What clubs and societies for youth are represented in a given community? What are their objectives? Who and of what type are their leaders? What are homes providing for their children here and now in the way of stimulating, satisfying experiences; in training for responsibility, for healthful living, for creative hobbies, for the discovery of vocational interests, for the practice of social customs? What are the standards and opportunities in this community for public recreation, for wholesome family life, for vocational efficiency? What are the facilities for maintaining these standards?

Only on the basis of this information can there be sufficient data for the development of comprehensive home, school, and community plans. The objective should be to ensure for each child as an individual the wise use of his time all of every day throughout the entire years of his growth to independent manhood. The function of the school in such a program will be that of a clearing house. It will coöperate with such agencies as the 4-H, Scouting, Campfire, Y.M.C.A., the church vacation schools, Junior Red Cross, thrift societies, and similar well-recognized responsible organizations represented in a particular community. The experiences and skills of children acquired out of school as well as in—the assistance of

local persons, amateur and professional, in art, music, and handicraft—can also be utilized. The school will seek to provide meaningful studies based on the many leads and first-hand experiences children are gaining in their living from day to day.

It may be said that schools have always utilized some of the experiences mentioned. Such use too frequently, however, has been incidental. In a comprehensive plan, schools coöperating with the home and other agencies will seek to balance experiences, make them sequential and meaningful. Desired services that are missing can be provided. Constructive leadership will seek to enrich and raise the standard of experiences available out of school as well as in. This will mean more interesting and worth-while ways of using week-ends, vacations, and an effort to guarantee in the child's daily life an abundance of stimulating and wholesome activity.

Care should be taken to avoid domination. Always permit choices, but make offerings so rich and varied that time can be well spent. There should always be chances to go it alone, to find time for wholesome recreation, to practise self-direction, self-control, within the framework of the society of which the child is a member, in the community to which he belongs.

In this way it is hoped that children will be freed from the dullness and boredom of mediocre living. In their work and play throughout the days and seasons of the year they seek, according to their brightness and stages of development, occupations of one kind or another. Imitating his elders, stimulated by toys, tools, machinery, pictures, and travel, the child continues in the free time of his waking hours, fall, winter, spring, and summer, to explore, to venture, to collect, to build. In his most active pursuits, he is preferably with others to whom he is temporarily bound by one interest or another. Potent among these associations are the ones that come by participation in groups organized outside the school, for religious instruc-

tion, groups for character training, clubs for recreation and the pursuit of special interests.

The development of a plan for education will vary with each community. Some are rich in opportunities, fortunate in leadership. Other places seem to offer but few resources for the use of children's time. Much can be done by groups of teachers in guiding children towards the better use of existing facilities. More lasting results, however, will come when there is a definite effort to meet, confer, and plan by all persons dealing directly with young people. Local leaders may be the school principal, the nurse, the librarian, heads of the best local children's organizations. All these people working together may constitute a council.

Coöordination on an administrative level can be achieved through meetings of those in control of funds and facilities; the superintendent of schools, a member of the board of education, the selectman or other government official, the president of the Parent-Teacher Association, chairman or sponsors of local youth movements.

The most practical beginning for comprehensive planning of time will often be through the organization of a program for guidance during the summer when schools are closed. Planning should begin early in the spring term. A review of the school year will reveal many unsolved problems and anticipated activities that have awaited free time for their development. Teachers and pupils may, as part of their work, prepare bibliographies, lists of places to be visited, of resources in territory within traveling range of parents and children. For older children vocational resources should be investigated. In these will be opportunities for trying out ability to earn money and for testing qualifications in various types of work that can be made a valuable part of school studies in guidance.

All summer programs should be discussed with parents and local associations likely to be of assistance. The best results from an

educational standpoint will be secured when children are organized in groups based on interest in nature, handicraft, music, dramatics, sports and games, reading, etc. Caution should be observed to consider not only interests but convenience in meeting, especially where transportation is difficult or homes are isolated. Suitable places for meetings should be ensured; out-of-doors for fair weather and a shelter when stormy. Leadership for the present must be, in most communities, voluntary. Many existing children's societies are already equipped to expand their programs and render valuable service in any summer plan.

When the results of the summer activities are assembled in the fall, innumerable leads develop for study and discussion. These form the basis for much self-directed activity at home and in school throughout the year.

In conclusion, the distinction between leisure and other time is yielding to a need for

comprehensive planning based on a recognition of value in unity through the coöordination of all factors in child experience during growth and development.

Those responsible for the planning are the home, school, and community agencies affecting youth. The development of plans must be from existing facilities and leadership. The largest blocks of unorganized time are now summer vacation periods. Many schools coöperating with families are already proving that they can go forth and help children utilize wisely, and we dare say more happily, the aimless hours hitherto lived in unorganized fashion by so many young people, considerable parts of every day, of every week-end, of every summer. The results of such planning in character formation, in breadth of interest, and in social thinking and social participation are found to be extremely worth while.

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Helping Children Face Social Realities

G. Robert Koopman

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The distinguished work in the Ann Arbor, Michigan, public schools is now widely known. We are pleased to present herewith a brilliant article by one of the educators who has been actively identified with the Ann Arbor experiments, G. Robert Koopman, principal of the Tappan Junior High School. If this article presented only a prospectus of a proposed experiment in social science, it would be of outstanding significance, but it presents a brief record of something not merely projected but actually accomplished.*

INTRODUCTION

MUCH CURRENT comment on realistic curricula is in terms of a piecemeal approach to the problem. The result has been a rather ill-considered, sentimental demand for increased realism without regard for the basic conditioning factors. These factors fall into categories under the following heads: (1) the nature of the child, (2) the nature of the social order, (3) the nature of the learning process, and (4) the technical knowledge and personnel with which we work.

In the broadest sense all growth in educational technics has contributed to increased realistic experience for the child. However, the present paper is limited to a discussion of methods and concepts dealing with an increase in understanding on the part of the child of the *social realities*. While the present social disturbance has increased interest in this field the need has been apparent and urgent ever since modern political democracy became an ideal having wide acceptance in the Occident. The implementation of a democratic education is unquestionably the task of the educator in America today. My task today is to help this implementation express itself in classroom activities.

REALISTIC ACTIVITIES IN THE CLASSROOM

To persons who wish to participate effectively in intelligently reorganizing education it has become apparent that technical workers cannot waste time defending formal education. Every bit of creative energy must be engaged in a scholarly attempt to bridge the gap between formal education and an effective functional education. Persons with fifteen or more years of teaching experience need listen to no lectures on formal education as such, as those persons have lived formal education. At the same time such persons know well that the so-called "new education" will consist to no small extent of parts of the old.

The world is full of suggestions to the effect that socially realistic activities are to be the most characteristic new thing in education. Beard has ably pointed out in his *Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools* that social reality is one of the three major bases for the teaching activity. Borsodi in his plan for a "school of living" asks for a new type of adult education which must be a partially controlled school environment and partially uncontrolled social reality. Newlon insists that educational administration is social policy. If administrators should make that mean "educational administration is positive social policy making," this paper would only need to deal with the technical questions of method which are essentially the distinctive characteristics of our profession.

I should like to mention the Ann Arbor Junior High School course of study for the social studies which is entitled *Helping Children Experience the Realities of the Social Order*. This publication of the Board of Education expresses rather fully and in de-

tail the philosophy of social realism in the schools and also presents an activities course of study which is a clear-cut attempt to provide a guide for the teacher whose task it is to help the child experience social realities.

DEMAND FOR NEW CONDITIONS OF EDUCATION

The writer is impressed with the need for a radical and comprehensive modification of the total school situation. A significant increase in the realistic quality of education can be brought about only if we make some major reconstructions, reinterpretations, and extensions. A new set of community schools must be constructed around the age groups and activities of the sections of the community population.

Educational administration, method, content, research, in service training curriculum making, and materials must all be reinterpreted in terms of classroom activities based upon social realities.

Educational philosophy has in recent years come to center around the aim of personality integration but personality growth must consider the social group. The following extensions are suggested:

1. All educational activities use the institution—plant or social institution—as a point of departure rather than only a site of operation.
2. All activities in the community are inventoried for the purpose of determining the most effective "points at which education may function maximally."
3. All educational activities are seen as, and carried on as, a conscious endeavor of man to reconstruct his environment in the interests of individual and group protection and extension of happiness.
4. All educational activities comprehend the total population whenever they would profit the total population.
5. All educational activities are planned to identify the immature learner with the ever enlarging social group.
6. All educational activities are carried on with a consciousness of all community needs.
7. All educational activities are planned to bring about an optimum of social integration.
8. All educational activities are thoroughly socialized and individualized through provision for an optimum amount of individual and group

guidance.

9. All educational activities are carried on in terms of complete creativity; *i.e.*, all factors are to be seen as completely flexible except for realistic controls. If accepted this gives the general purpose.

HELPING CHILDREN FACE SOCIAL REALITIES

Thirteen years of definite experimentation with social studies in the secondary schools has brought out certain emphases. These experiments which began with an attempt to increase realism and ended in the same place have scarcely kept up with the social demand for realistic curricula. It is because of this rapid change in the needs of group life that we must insist upon total reorganizations as essential. It is hoped, however, that these specific suggestions may serve to suggest areas of growth.

I. *Recognition and investigation of the typical problems of group life* (high incidence). This suggestion is readily seen as the one which has been made by students of sociology and social trends for some time. It has, however, been interpreted in a number of peculiar ways. The westward movement has been interpreted as a problem of group life. Instead of studying the adjustments of the people of Middletown, we find that units on desert life, life in Australia, life among the Eskimos have been given space in our school curriculum. The emphasis should instead be on *current* problems. It is difficult to recognize, isolate, and define typical problems of the life of any group without at the same time stultifying the problem. The Ann Arbor course to which I have referred substituted a three-year course in social problems for the typical course in the junior high school and even then the writer of this paper cannot find it possible to get alarmed about this departure from academic education. In fact, the danger is still that our education is too academic because the problem when written down, even though the class discovers the problem and writes it down, takes on sufficient unreality to cause concern to the thoroughgoing realist. (Controversial question)

II. *Emergencies of group life* (low incidence—school house burns—but high cruciality). This suggestion recognizes that all teachers do recognize and use emergencies of group life as educational experiences but suggest that we must go much further—that we should constantly be translating emergencies of group life into educational activities of wide social significance.

III. *Establishment of an extramural program.* This suggestion is based upon the assumption that the school should be not only a site of operation but also a point of departure for educational activities and investigations. This program as it is justified and utilized in Ann Arbor may be of interest to others. Certain fundamental justifications exist.

1. Of necessity education, as at present organized, runs a very great danger of losing its touch with life as it is lived. All thought, like Antaeus, loses its strength when removed very far from the situation which provoked it. We can avoid much of the danger of academic unreality by basing the discussions in the schoolroom upon group or individual observations of life.

2. Society is stratified to a great extent. The public school serves as a meeting ground and public-school excursions teach children how other people live and work, thus creating in them appreciation of the lives of others. This is a direct contribution to our vocational-guidance program as well as to social education in general.

3. Excursions serve as social experiments. Such an excursion as the one to the county jail gives a child valuable social experiences of a vicarious nature.

4. A good extramural program will reduce certain expenses, otherwise inevitable, by giving access to an inexpensive natural laboratory in the place of very expensive and rather artificial school laboratories. In addition the organized excursion program represents a saving in transportation of sometimes fifty per cent as it enables the individual to pay wholesale rather than retail prices.

5. Textbook teaching, while necessary, is often overdone. Excursions form a natural corrective. Excursions vitalize the subject matter of all departments. They yield fruit in the form of enlivened English themes, rich social attitudes, appreciation of the practicability of mathematics, etc. Consequently school interest is increased.

6. The excursion program represents an auto-

matic adjustment of education to society and bridges the gap between the ideal life and the practical life in just the proper proportion because it deals with life itself.

7. Community participation—telephone. Any clubs—Rotary Club.

IV. *The local inventory.* This suggestion has a rather long educational history in Japan, England, Russia, and Germany. We have been using it as a method of redefining the curriculum. Dr. R. B. Hall of the University of Michigan has defined the local survey as "the organized study of a small area and of its life in every important regard, and the correlation and integration of all these conditions into a composite and complete picture of the area." Kilpatrick justifies it by saying "The people of this country must recognize the economic and social facts and plan accordingly. It appears clear that we must learn our thinking in the field itself if thinking is to function fruitfully. Shared research gives all a chance at participation and leadership and in so far as possible the young should share with the old in considering and reaching responsible decisions. In so doing they will be consciously studying to criticize and improve society."

The inventory has been used effectively in Ann Arbor and the movement is spreading rapidly in Michigan schools. Dr. Hall is at the present time conducting a series of radio broadcasts to the general public to bring about increased public understanding.

V. *The use of magazines and newspapers, bulletins, etc., in the social studies.* This well-known method of introducing realism scarcely needs discussion. The purposes may be stated as follows:

1. Helping the child to keep informed on current happenings
2. Giving meaning to the study of social problems
3. Offering a continuous review of problems previously encountered
4. Guaranteeing practice in press evaluation

VI. *Establishment of subsidiary institutions designed to give rise to realistic experiences.* The establishment within the school

of semi-autonomous societies promises to be one of the fundamental methods of organization in the schools. In the Tappan school we have established a little theater governed by a council. Such an organization gives experience not only in dramatic activities but most of the other important life activities, such as coöperation, management, finance, etc. Of more universal appeal is the Ann Arbor Educational Experiment Station which consists of a student-governed land project in Northern Michigan. In this case the children bought, paid for, and now manage several hundred acres of land in Northern Michigan. This land, heavily wooded, contains a mile and a half of lake shore and is naturally stocked with wild life ranging from bear to bacteria. In managing this project food, clothing, and shelter take on a real significance. Some of the program possibilities of such a project are as follows:

1. Animal and plant inventory
2. Reforestation
3. Silviculture
4. Fish culture
5. Logging
6. Sawing lumber
7. Fire prevention
8. Game conservation
9. Agricultural projects
10. Soil study
 - a) Kind
 - b) Utilization
11. Cultural adjustments of immigrant community
12. Study of township government and local taxation
13. Sanitation
14. Health
 - a) Swimming
 - b) Purposeful exercise other than play
 - c) Play under new conditions
15. Commissary activities
16. Constructing buildings—C.W.A.
17. Preparing a budget
18. Outdoor play production
19. Campfire stories and community singing
20. Harvesting natural products, such as hay and berries

VII. Establishment of real planning bodies. This suggestion is rather closely related to two or three others made in this paper but should be isolated because in the last

analysis it deals with a key problem—that of social direction.

At the present time there is projected in Ann Arbor a planning body consisting of pupils from the various secondary schools in the city. Another project which has been discussed is the establishment of a student-planning commission which would function for Washtenaw County to deal with the planning of Washtenaw County's economic, human, and educational resources. This is an outcome of the Federally financed Wash-tenaw County Survey.

Beyond this is a possibility, which may be very fantastic, that pupils from Michigan schools might interest the State government and the Government of the Dominion of Canada in regional planning for the purpose of establishing a series of camps and way stations to lead from Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan into Canada, the most talked of destination being a hook-up with ocean transportation at James Bay. Such an organization properly subsidized, while at the present time only visionary, might well open up new areas of social reality to children of all kinds.

VIII. More complete interpretation of subject matter. This suggestion is somewhat trite. It is only included here because the two latest books in education which have come to the attention of the speaker have not seen beyond this point. More complete interpretation of the subject matter assumes a subject-matter course instead of an activities course which should be ruled out of the social studies in the common schools in the interest of better functioning society. More intensive interpretation of the subject matter is desirable but it does tend to culminate in the last analysis in one of two undesirable activities—if it deals with the present it generally ends with some exercises in logic which are best evidenced in the college or high-school debate which is essentially a meaningless activity. The other terminal activity which is also well-known to the social-studies teacher is the intensive study of his-

tory as such. This is meaningless, assumptive, and essentially fictitious so far as the ordinary secondary-school child is concerned. However, more completeness of interpretation is unquestionably desirable.

IX. Interpretations of daily life before and after the fact. Any method which follows the child tends to bring about deeper and more meaningful interpretations of the daily acts of the learner and of the group. In this category we find incidental health teaching, incidental character education, incidental guidance, incidental study of group life, but most important of all in this category we deal directly with the function of self-appraisal. It is readily seen that these interpretations of daily life will deal with important acts only as the learner is concerned with important acts. A group which has just been on an excursion to the State legislature will be making interpretations around a more important experience than one which has just finished reading a chapter about the legislative branch of the State government. All in all, these interpretations represent a constant function of good method and can be viewed apart from the curriculum.

X. Provision for standing committees on socialization. Socially realistic experiences can be best increased by increasing planning and watchfulness rather than total reliance upon fixed courses of study. For that reason at the Tappan Junior High School we have finally discovered the natural functional faculty and student committees which make for increased socialization. These committees are at work every week of the school year and number three faculty committees at the first level and eighteen student committees at the first level. Both sets of committees have a supercommittee to aid, coordinate, and deepen realistic interpretation at all times.

These committees add a completeness of

interpretation of life which can be obtained by no substitute. From the point of view of organization this is a fundamental necessity.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion let us turn to a brief consideration of the problem of direction in education. Direction in education differs from social direction in that it deals primarily with the individual—his nature and his potentiality. Hullfish has pointed out that it is activities and ideas of the creative individual that reconstruct society.

There is a group emphasis also. Group life must by its very nature be posited upon current abiding faiths. These abiding faiths although temporary and lacking in an ultimate rightness do create the emphases within realism which make differentiation of life from year to year, from period to period, and from age to age. While we as a social composite can never get fully outside of our realism, nevertheless, by continuous reevaluation of our major group inclinations, we can give that direction to social life and to education which is consistent with the nature of the human animal.

If we may assume a realistic curriculum which is constantly affecting group life and constantly playing a part in social and educational direction we must recognize a different public-relations problem. A curriculum heavily weighted with social reality would eventually bring about wide and effective adult participation in school activities with consequent public support. Public-relations programs which seek support for formal curricula must of necessity be "high pressure" and artificial in nature. On the contrary, a program of public relations to accompany a realistic curriculum would be one calling forth sympathetic guidance and a kind of support which would yield its own satisfactions and ultradividends in the form of adult education through participation.

An Experiment in Partnership

Byron M. Taylor

EDITOR'S NOTE: There is something of genius in a man who dares to make a statement as obvious as the one with which Mr. Taylor begins this article—as obvious and as startling. The experiment reported took place last spring in the Woodrow Wilson Junior High School, San Diego, California, where the author is a member of the faculty. In these few paragraphs you may find reasons for revising the policies governing parent-teacher relationships in your school.

PARENTS, as a class, are not much interested in teachers, as a class, but the parents of any one child are greatly interested in the teacher of that child. Too often we assume that the reverse is true, and in all of our endeavors to elicit public interest and support we appeal to parents as a group; and, in so doing, we act as a group of educators or else we represent ourselves as an institution, the school. This method, of course, is not to be wholly condemned, but it is apparent that with all our use of the press and radio, with all of our organizations, such as the Parent-Teacher Association, with all of our shows, meetings, special bulletins, and invitations, there is a great deal lacking in positive and active support from the parents.

These ideas were presented to our principal, who agreed with the first part of the working hypothesis and approved plans for testing the second part. Action was based upon belief that if the second part of the hypothesis be true, parents will respond to an appeal to them through their children. Accordingly, the following letter was sent to the parents of each of fifty-five boys in two low 8 classes in beginning electricity, doing integrative work:

Woodrow Wilson Junior High School
San Diego, California

Dear Parents:

Your son,, is enrolled in the course in beginning Electricity, period, each day of the week. In this

course, your son, in company with his fellows, is using an integrating instruction sheet which guides him through experiences similar to those of actual life. That is, as he makes an electric motor, he uses his school subjects, such as mathematics, science, English, etc., as the need arises and he uses only that which is pertinent to the main job.

May I suggest that you have your son bring home his work occasionally, so that you may encourage him and establish a bond of common interest with him in this interesting activity.

Also may I cordially invite you to visit our laboratory, Room 44, so that you may see your son at work in this environment and so that we, the three of us, may better understand the interests and purposes of each other. You are welcome to visit any day that is convenient to you.

Sincerely yours

Instructor in Electricity

Approved:

L. L. Bloomershine, Principa

P.S.—As a record of this invitation, will you please sign below and return this by your son. Also, any comments that you care to make concerning this letter, whether you will visit us, suggestions, etc., will be greatly appreciated.

(Parent's Signature)

(Date)

Each letter was signed personally by the instructor and sent home by the pupil. The purposes of the letters were explained to the classes. Because the course is a quarter one, the experiment could only run five weeks.

RESULTS

Even before the letters started returning, the writer was sure, by subjective reasoning, that there was a distinct improvement in the attitude of the classes towards their work; a decided increase in the "tone" of the groups. This indicated that there had

been discussions and explanations at home, between pupil and parents, concerning the course.

Though he assigned no homework, the instructor noticed a great increase in the number of pupils who returned to the shop after school, got their motors and instruction sheets, and took them home.

All fifty-five invitations were returned, signed by the parents. Thirty-nine parents made comments, many of which were promises of coöperation with, and encouragement of, the pupil. A few comments follow: "I, too, think teacher and parent should know one another." "Your consideration for our boy's success is appreciated." "I think this is an excellent plan." "I am interested in this work and will use all my encouragement." "I will gladly respond to your request and have advised _____ accordingly." "I am glad _____ has an opportunity to be a member of your class." "I appreciate your thoughtfulness in acquainting us with this interesting project." "This is a splendid subject for _____ and I shall give him any help possible." A large proportion of the parents expressed a desire to visit the shop. Twenty of the returned invitations were signed by fathers, twelve of whom made comments. This is, of course, a healthy sign.

Nineteen parents visited their sons' classes during the five weeks of the experiment. This is more visitors than the writer has had to all of his classes in seven years in this city, and his experiences are typical of other teachers. Interesting conjectures can be made as to the number of parents who would visit the school if all teachers would utilize this method.

When a parent came to class, he or she was told that we were not on "dress parade" (as we most certainly are on open-house nights, Parent-Teacher Association parties, etc.), that we wished to be seen "in our working clothes" and that he or she was to roam about the shop and ask any one about anything that was intriguing. A talk about the boy was always held between the parent

and the teacher and both increased their understanding of the boy and of each other.

Several parents expressed pleasant surprise that a teacher would want visitors during school hours, saying they thought most teachers would not want them. Many contrasted the schools of their day with the modern school and dwelt upon the advantages of today. Fathers, in particular, expressed appreciation of and a desire for more "practical" training for their boys and seemed cognizant of the fact that modern city life had robbed their boys of the opportunities the fathers themselves had of working in youth with their fathers on purposive and real "character-building" activities on the farm or in the small shop or store.

Especially noteworthy was the fact that of the nineteen visitors nine were fathers. One father in order to visit the classes closed his store, another his office. Two took time off from their jobs; one, an automobile salesman, arranged a convenient "prospect" near the school and drove out from the business district. While it is true the classes were composed entirely of boys doing shopwork which would be of especial interest to fathers, there is a strong possibility that the direct method of appeal and the opportunity to see the "real workings" of a part of the school, were themselves particularly effective in attracting the fathers.

CONCLUSION

Parents of a child are greatly interested in the teachers of that child. This suggests that still the strongest and soundest tie that binds the school and community is that between the teacher and the parent and through the child. Which further suggests that we should utilize this tie more in our dealings with the community. The variations of such a procedure can be many, depending upon the teacher and/or administrator and upon their particular purposes.

Not only was a partnership achieved between the home and the school but, as suggested by the letter, there was closer coop-

eration gained between parent and pupil within the home.

The letter of invitation was a positive and pleasant appeal to the parent, which is in contrast to much of the negative and depressing "warnings," etc., carried home by the pupils. Furthermore, parents who visited the school in response to the letter came in a positive and constructive frame of mind, while parents who ordinarily visit the schools because of the "troubles" of their children come with negative and often antagonistic attitudes.

This proposal was upon a direct, sound, and tangible basis. Our go-to-school nights, parties, suppers, etc., are upon a social or abstract basis, removed from the realities of actual school life and thus are deficient in force and concrete accomplishment.

The visitors who came to these two classes appeared to be the intelligent better-class type who are just the people that we need to visit our schools and become interested in their betterment. Most of our usual daytime visitors are parents who are obliged to come to the school because of their children's problems, scholastic or disciplinary. This method shows how we may bring to the school the parents of pupils who are progressing successfully in their work and who are not of that group of incorrigibles and misfits that heretofore have received a lion's share of attention. The active and intelligent interest of the parents of successful pupils may defi-

nitely raise the morale of our classrooms.

Fathers are greatly interested in the welfare of their children and in the betterment of the schools. The conditions in our schools, where about 80 per cent of our teachers are women and where the Parent-Teacher Association is made up almost exclusively of women, are considered by many authorities as being far from ideal. At least, most people will concede, there is a great need for more masculinity in our schools. This experiment opens up the problem of getting fathers' opinions and criticisms, how to make effective the masculine parental influence and thus once again balance that great virtue which, because of its very preponderance, may easily become pernicious—feminine influence.

No claim is made that the results of this experiment form a revolutionary conception of the school-community relationship. However, there is reason to believe that many of our appeals to the public are upon an abstract and unsound basis; and this experiment does indicate that if our appeals were placed through the fundamental channels that exist between teacher and parents, by way of the child, we might expect a higher success in a great many of our public relations. There are, of course, numerous variations that can be made in the technique herein outlined. Its adaptations will depend upon the particular problems of the teacher or administrator.

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Appraising Learning Material

John Carr Duff

THE CLEARING HOUSE will undertake some pioneering in a new field. Representing the interests of the consumer, this magazine, beginning with the next issue, will present a new department where new learning materials will be evaluated. The editor herewith presents the details of the plan and solicits your interest and criticism.

THE BOOK REVIEW as an institution is old enough to have flourished and declined many times. Whether it is now flourishing or declining depends on one's bias. In the educational periodicals we have rarely availed ourselves of a modicum of the reviewer's art, and, except in a few notable instances, the book reviews are allowed so little space that the whole review for your favorite book may be printed on a library catalogue card.

And yet the book-review section of this magazine renders an important service. It is effective, if only in a small measure, in promoting the publication of better books—books that are *better* from the consumers' point of view, books that are more carefully written, more readable, more reliable in the facts presented, more durable, and less expensive. If we "pull our punches" in reviewing textbooks and rarely allow ourselves the luxury of such polite vituperation as the professional literary reviewers employ, we have our ethics nevertheless. It is unlikely that the writers of such reviews as ours would be influenced in their appraisals by the amount of advertising space a publisher has contracted for, or any other irrelevancy.

The book-review section is a stable department of professional magazines because the producers of books (authors and publishers) and the consumers (teachers and administrators) have found that it renders a real service. Objective evidence has been adduced to show that reviews, notwithstanding a liberal number of disparaging ones, sell

more books than advertisements do. (Of course, there could be no magazine, and therefore no reviews, without the financial income derived from advertising space.) The publishers have supported and encouraged the book reviewers—they continue to submit books for review, and they are unbelievably patient when the review section gets jammed up and notices and reviews are published many months late.

It is the obvious success of the book-review idea that, coupled with some equally obvious notions about the nature of modern education, yields the plan that we are pleased to announce now. For want of a better name we must introduce it as the *Clearing House Material Review Department*.

This special issue emphasizing some aspects of the work of experimental schools is a fitting number in which to launch the new department. In the experimental schools everywhere there has been characteristically a consistent recognition of the principle that pupils do not thrive on books alone. Modern education, in the secondary grades especially, would be impossible without the use of books, periodicals, and other printed matter. But it is equally true that education is impossible if it depends on these alone. Every progressive teacher knows and employs the principle that abstractions, including verbal ones, have potential value for an individual in direct proportion to the real experience with which he can invest them. Roundness as a concept depends on active experiences with round objects, and the control of the concept is first established when the pupil, using a string or a compass, learns how to draw perfect circles of varying sizes. In like manner other concepts of form, of space, and color are learned by drawing, painting, and modeling.

The value of real experience with con-

crete material is commonplace in our declarations of faith, but it is less frequently evidenced in our practice. There are not enough libraries by half, but there are more libraries than museums. We are badly crippled by our need for textbooks, but we have only begun to discover our need for more stuff and better stuff, out of which pupils will paint and print and cut and shape their interpretations of the world as they discover it.

In the best sense, they create the world when they discover it—each one sets for himself the boundaries where his spirit may ride. But it is through discriminating selection of elements and the purposeful recombination of these elements that the individual learns the desire to re-create his world and the valid techniques, social as well as artistic and technological, through which he may leave his world better in some way than he discovered it.

The phrase "materials of instruction" is generally used with a narrow connotation, for in too many schools teachers and students are still preoccupied with verbalisms; for them books and other printed matter are the "materials." To consider all reading matter as one classification and to reserve the word "materials" for application to all the other things through which a student learns in school—this should provide a new and wholesome distinction. It is *raw* material that we shall be concerned with then, material which, however it has already been processed, still allows some opportunity for the student to use it as a medium for a creative experience.

The technologists have revolutionized the routine of the cook and the laundress as well as the office clerk; but there has been little enough technology applied to the materials used in the school for learning. It is likely that the next ten years will see many signal improvements; it seems to us a worthy purpose to promote and encourage whatever movement there is in this direction. The material reviews we propose to publish will

serve this movement in the same way that discriminating book reviews have lent some aid and comfort to all who were trying to make better school books available.

Criteria. We shall judge a product first by the degree in which it lends itself for experiment, adventure, and creativity. This quality—the creative uses which are possible and likely—will head the list of criteria by which materials will be reviewed. It is not a quality to be determined by any objective measures or in any refined quantitative index. But it does exist. It exists in various materials in various quantities, and it can be estimated. For instance, it is a "natural" quality of modeling clay, and of finger paint, and of other such artistic media. To see clearly that the creative possibilities of material vary widely it will be enough to contrast some familiar toys—it is legitimate to mention toys, certainly, for now that many of us have got our Puritan consciences in check and recognize that "work" is not all of virtue and "play" a form of sin, we know that there is no essential difference between toys and many other educational materials. Or the difference is that at home they are toys; at school they are projects. In the last decade there has been great advance made in designing toys and in planning into them an optimum of possibilities for creative use. In addition to those known as "educational toys," there are more and more toys available that represent the reaction against the wind-up toys and the pretty-pretty ones, exciting to look at for a little while but utterly vapid and unfit for creative play.

A more or less complete list of the criteria to be applied in judging the likely merit of material offered for educational use will tentatively include the following:

1. *Creativity:* An item rates high when it offers in a large degree an opportunity for the individual to have with it or through it a creative experience—to make something new, to invent, design, modify, construct or reconstruct, to control the material in some purposive way. An item rates low in its possibilities for creativity when it is completed, finished; it can be looked at, admired, per-

haps even handled, but the designer and manufacturer have done all the creating—have squeezed out all the best possibilities.

2. *Durability*: How well will it hold up in use? How soon broken, worn out?

3. *Cost*: Per single item; in quantities; relation of distributor's prices to likely production cost.

4. *Economy*: "Upkeep," expendability. Blocks are not used up; they have been known to serve two, even three, generations. But chemicals are used up, paints are used up, and many "sets" are offered which provide only a small amount of some necessary but expendable material.

5. *Manufacture*: The country in which the item is made—other things being equal, an American product is preferred to a foreign-made one.

6. *Knowledge concomitants*: Useful factual information likely to be learned in the manipulation of the item (this quality is the one emphasized in games which are sold as "educational").

7. *Social concomitants*: What social attitudes, positive or negative, are inherent in the use of the item? Toy pistols—are they likely to promote positive social attitudes?

8. *Skills*: What useful skill is developed through experience with the item? (The word "useful" may be interpreted broadly, but not forgotten entirely.)

9. *Difficulty*: What level of difficulty is represented in the item? What age level? What grade levels?

10. *Novelty*: Newness, originality.

11. *Design*: Aesthetically, mechanically.

12. *Follow-through*: What experiences are likely to develop as a result of successful experience with the item? What carry over?

The reviews of educational materials, which will be published in **THE CLEARING HOUSE** beginning with the next issue, will be based on a "theoretical" or subjective estimate of their possibilities and limitations, plus a laboratory test. The test, as frequently as possible, will be made in a real school situation where the material can be used by pupils and its merit judged by their response. In all reviews the interests of the teacher

and pupils and their point of view will be represented.

Manufacturers and distributors will be requested to send descriptive literature before sending material for analysis as the resources of this department are limited and only promising items will be accepted for review. In general, only material that measures up well according to the criteria printed above will be reviewed. Items found unworthy, defective, or inappropriate for school use will be reported so to the distributor but not mentioned in the review columns.

We will be pleased to receive from readers confidential appraisals of new educational materials. We shall be pleased to know also in what degree your experience with certain material corresponds to the appraisal of it published here. Our subscribers are invited also to report new uses they have discovered for old materials; that is, for materials well-known to classroom teachers and supervisors.

The dictum about the superior rattrap and the path to the door was true in Emerson's day, but it is less true in our day. You may make a superior rattrap, or the best possible model kit, or a construction toy that has no equal—you may make them in large quantities to sell, and the world may diligently stay away from your door. Advertising helps; but a large part of it, in our competitive system, cancels out. **THE CLEARING HOUSE** is preparing now to wave a bright flag and blow a loud horn for all the new products that must be discovered and used if creative procedures in education are to have a fair trial. We shall celebrate in these columns the availability of the new materials through which the youth in school may learn progressively to re-create himself and his world.

Learning to Use Mathematics

Christine A. Brown

EDITOR'S NOTE: At the Burris School of the Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, the author teaches mathematics and has the courage to hew to the line, let the fractions fall where they will. Here is a report on a tested practice which adds new evidence to the current discussion of integration of subject matter.

HOW CAN WE give the junior- or senior-high-school student the advantage of an integrated program without depriving him of daily contact with teachers specialized in the teaching of certain subjects? It is obvious that even in the seventh grade the absence of either is a loss. We must grant that an instructor properly qualified to teach all high-school subjects is a very rare person, if indeed he exists at all. In an integrated study on the high-school level, then, specialists must play a part. How can this be done so that skills and learnings acquired in one connection will be recognized and applied when needed? Now that we have been assured that transfer really may take place, to a varying degree, depending on individual differences and *on the amount of guidance in making the transfer*, we should be ready to take advantage of this opportunity to economize in the learning process.

Transfer of mathematical knowledge and skills to work in other classes is often difficult for the child because teachers have used different vocabularies and different methods. Hence the science teacher, let us say, comes to the conclusion that the children have no mathematical background, and the mathematics teacher decides that there is no such thing as transfer of training. Conferences between teachers have not satisfactorily bridged this gap. If the school schedule can be so arranged that the teacher of mathematics may observe the children that he teaches, in other classes, and be called upon to teach the mathematics when it arises, an

economy in learning may be accomplished. If the mathematics teacher's work will not permit him to visit the science class often, at least he can plan to attend when forewarned that the mathematical situation will arise. He can plan his approach, relating the work to subject matter already studied, and at least referring to the science problem under discussion. If the science teacher is clever in leading up to the point at which he turns the discussion over to his colleague, and the mathematics teacher makes the science problem an integral part of his mathematical discussion, the student learning may be truly integrated. After the student has become acquainted with this method, a class may turn into a discussion group with many students and two teachers participating. Both science and mathematics take on new meaning for the students. They are no longer studying science here and mathematics there, but they are studying "sound" (or whatnot), applying to this study all the skills they possess that are related to the subject.

We have been working together along this line in our junior high school this year. A few illustrations of what actually was done may serve to clarify the plan. In studying the relation between the pressure of a fluid and its depth, the mathematics teacher was called in to discuss direct variation with a group of eighth-grade students. Starting with the more familiar rectangle formula, area equals length times width, the students thought out the relation between the area and length when the width is constant. Similar variations were discovered from the relation distance equals rate times time. Then the newer formula, pressure equals height times density, was considered. The time was so ripe for a fuller understanding of variation that several class hours were devoted to the work, inverse as well as direct variation

being studied. The students made two graphs showing direct and inverse variation, respectively. The science teacher from this point on could use the technical terms of variation and be understood perfectly by his eighth-grade pupils.

A seventh-grade class, in studying about the weight of air, needed to understand volumes. The class was more or less familiar with areas but not with volumes. Using a review of areas as a starting point, and the usual set of cubes for demonstration, the teacher of mathematics introduced the class to volumes *during their science period*, because the students felt the immediate need in their science work.

Scale drawing was studied by this group in connection with two science problems. A large diagram of the solar system to scale made an interesting activity. Elementary indirect measurement by scale drawing was studied to give the children a little idea of methods used in measuring greater distances indirectly.

The eighth-grade class mentioned above recently wanted to know how rapidly bacteria multiply. Starting with one bacterium, they said, and assuming a duplication every thirty minutes, how many bacteria would there be after twenty-four hours? The mathematics instructor was called in. She showed the class what a geometric progression is, gave them the formula for the last term of such a progression, and allowed them to substitute in the formula. Here was her opportunity to show them the great time-saving value of logarithms, thus giving them an added glimpse into the mathematics of senior high school and college. The value of this lesson was threefold. It vitalized the science work; it did the same for mathematics, as well as giving practice in evaluating a formula; and it opened up future worlds to conquer in mathematics.

Another formula was created as well as used by this class when Fahrenheit temperatures were needed in an experiment for use in a table in their textbook. Only centigrade

thermometers were available at the time. With a little help in comparing unit degrees on the two scales, discovering their ratio, the class built their own formula for transforming centigrade temperatures to Fahrenheit temperatures, and put it to immediate use for the problem at hand. The naturally mentally aggressive students proceeded to make the converse formula for transforming Fahrenheit temperatures to centigrade, and demonstrated their findings to the class.

The science class is not the only class in which the mathematics teacher might be a frequent visitor and participant, if schedule will permit. A seventh-grade group in the household arts course wanted to budget their day and show the result by a circle graph. Several class periods devoted to mathematics were required to find what percentage of the day each activity requires and how many degrees of the circle should represent that percentage. The construction of the graph required an introduction to the use of compass and protractor. The teacher of household arts felt that her purpose had been accomplished. The teacher of mathematics felt that the principles involved were better assimilated than when taught only in a logically organized course. The girls who were canning tomatoes and beans computed the exact cost of the finished product and compared this with the cost of commercially canned goods.

The teacher of industrial arts found that his heavy burden in the general shop was lightened a bit when the mathematics teacher slipped in occasionally and checked with the boys and girls who were computing the costs of their projects.

The experiment here described was tried out only with seventh- and eighth-grade classes. There is no reason why it should not work as well on through the twelfth grade, if the teachers are adaptable. It seems that one requisite for ensuring success in this plan is that the mathematics be taught by the instructor with whom the children are studying mathematics regularly. This would im-

ply perhaps that more teachers should follow their classes through one, two, or even five or six years of their mathematics work, rather than repeat the same subject matter with different children each semester. Would we not have better teaching with the emphasis thus on the child rather than on subject matter?

This is all valuable, you say, but what mathematics teacher has time for all this additional work? It is true that no teacher with a full schedule of mathematics classes can do more than a very little of this sort of thing. But if these children have *enough* mathematics in its natural setting—when it is needed—the scheduled mathematics might be reduced one hour per week. Let no one get the idea that a program such as this can be anything but supplementary to a good organized course in junior-high-school mathematics. Mathematics is a tool only *in so far as it has been mastered*. One can use reading to study economics or sociology, *provided one has learned to read*. Just so, one can use mathematics as an aid in learning many sciences, economics, business, music, art, and whatnot, provided one has learned more than the mere a-b-c's of this foundation science. The work with an eighth-grade class described in the foregoing paragraphs would have been impossible without a basic

knowledge of formulas. The mathematics of the junior high school is very elementary and is the minimum that should be required for even the slow students, to help in orienting them to the world about them. Just what that mathematics should be is, of course, a very important question, but is beside the point here. The amount of algebra that could be used profitably in the courses in junior-high-school science testifies to the fact that we dare not rob these children of their minimum course, which would include a little algebra.

This plan is more than correlation. The mathematics becomes an integral part of the science, shopwork, or whatever the subject is. Are not these children capable of carrying on three or four parallel activities, making use of their accomplishments in mathematics and in English, in each of these, just as they carry on one or two activities in the elementary school? "Activity" teachers are often handicapped by lack of specialized background. One cannot specialize in everything. On the other hand, subject-matter teachers have frequently taken transfer for granted and have been disappointed. It has been found that the transferring mechanism does not work without help. In the plan outlined above we are groping towards real transfer and integrated children.

Test "Oppression" and Recovery

H. D. Richardson

Editor's Note: When any one contributes an article as convincing as this one, the editors are convinced. When such an article is by a director of research who dares to flaunt the dogma of his guild, the article merits immediate publication and the author is credited with a contribution. Dr. Richardson is director of research for the Deerfield-Shields Township High School, Highland Park, Illinois. What reward do you think we should vote him for an article as important as this one?

OUR ENTHUSIASM for managing schools according to the principles of big business organization has led to the thinking of education in terms of objectivity, efficiency, standardization, and mass production. The instruments and techniques of tests and measurements have both helped to create and develop this enthusiasm. These devices of measurement and precision have been so successful in translating educational thinking into terms familiar in business organization that they have now become somewhat of a fetish. The efficient school administrator is prone to look upon the results of tests and measurements with uncritical devotion as a source of authoritative evidence of a *special and unrelated* kind to show that his school is well managed or inefficient, that teaching is good or bad, or that a child is bright or stupid. Other factors which may give evidence of education in a deeper sense, for example, the inspiration of an excellent teacher, the happiness and growth that comes from planning and executing a piece of work, or the struggle to adjust to a new idea, are often neglected or overlooked in favor of the tangible accretions of knowledge revealed by test scores.

Especially has the "objective new-type test" become a much relied upon instrument for measuring the results of instruction. That the "traditional essay-type" examination was decidedly inadequate as a device

for measuring educational results is not to be denied, but that it is to be entirely replaced by objective-factual tests, standardized or informal, is to be seriously questioned. The essay examination had, and still has, its limitations, and so has the objective test. Unbiased authors of books on tests have pointed out the limitations of both types, but misguided enthusiasts have failed to distinguish between objective tests and objective scoring of tests.

At the present time the progressive and really scientific schoolman finds himself in the midst of a reign of published tests of many kinds, diverse in character and function. The school administrator is now confronted with the problem of testing the tests, so to speak. The testers themselves must pass examination. Each schoolman or teacher must be a tester of the testers, at least of their tests. He has the responsibility of deciding what kinds of tests shall be used to further the educational program of his school. He must not only know what tests to use, but how many to use, when to use them, and for what purposes; and finally he must be able to interpret the results after using them.

With so many tests available, and with their claims so laudably preached, there is some danger in testing so much that the youngsters have nothing left to test, and the teachers no time to help them get more. Again it may be that tests are given so often that the results are never used because more tests are waiting to be scored. Or again, tests are given at the end of the year and forgotten in the summer, or at the time a pupil is about to leave one unit of the school organization for another, and are of little value because the bird has flown. Again, many tests are given merely to satisfy an idle curiosity about some child in the class, or to

confirm a prejudice or establish a conviction, or to fortify self-complacency, or to furnish authority for a "thou shalt not" dictum, or to determine those who can or cannot do this or that.

In view of the present test "oppression" what general principles of recovery can be set up as guides for the use of tests that will not endanger genuine educational freedom? The following are suggested:

1. The main function of education is to enable one to continue his education. Education is growth. Each individual must do his own growing. Each must grow his own mind. The one who is doing the learning must do the learning. Tests must in some way help the individual to continue his education. They must in the same way serve the teacher in appraising growth or the conditions that stimulate growth. They must not be barriers, nor must they result in prohibitions. They shall not be "magnificent experiments" in that sense.

2. Education as growth means that education is genetic. Development is continuous. The past is significant in that it makes possible the present. The past having determined it, the present is significant for its future uncertainties and possibilities rather than for its stabilities and conformities. Tests must in some way help the individual appraise his past as revealed by his present achievements, and tests must help the individual see his future in terms of what he may become. The tests must reveal to the teacher his place in the developing scheme of things.

3. Social growth and development depends upon, and is nourished by the culture of the social groups of which the individual is a member, and in its turn becomes the means by and through which this culture is transmitted and reconstructed. Tests must in some way reveal the growth and development of social groups and reveal the extent to which the culture of these groups has been transmitted and reconstructed.

If these principles have some validity high schools are in need of some tests not now at hand.

The first principle translated in terms of tests means that instructional, diagnostic, and mastery tests are needed. Instructional tests are better thought of as instructional or learning exercises which enable the individual to proceed largely under his own direction and at his own rate and yet be

reasonably certain that he is getting somewhere. Diagnostic tests are for the purpose of helping the individual who has lost his way find his bearings. For the individual who has come to an impasse, they serve to help him build a bridge or locate a detour. Mastery tests tell the individual who thinks he has arrived whether he has or not. They also lay for him the foundation for the next story of his educational structure. They may be towers or balconies from which he surveys distant educational horizons. They may be laboratories or libraries where he organizes an experiment and sees it through or reconstructs and summarizes investigations and experiences. All of these tests function in furthering educational growth. The individual uses them to continue his education.

The second principle reveals the need for achievement tests and prognostic or aptitude tests. The standardized achievement tests now available for the high-school subject fields do not entirely meet this need. The present achievement tests are almost entirely of the objective-factual type and are designed for country-wide group survey purposes. Few of them are valid and reliable enough for rigid individual appraisal. The present need is for "local" comprehensive examinations which have curricular validity for the pupils who take them, and which are painstakingly enough constructed reliably to measure individuals. There is no reason why these tests should be exclusively of the "objective-factual" type. It is important to know what common bases of knowledge have been established in the habit patterns of the students. The objective test will measure these acquired habits. But these individual achievement tests should be of another character as well. Mind is more than separate habits. These tests should reveal the quality of these habits, their depth, their interrelations, their sensitiveness, their stability. Some of these tests should be frankly ventures that require intelligence. The individual should be called upon to reorganize experience in light of new circumstances.

He should be called upon to develop a solution to an original problem, to educe new relations, to project and forecast, to invent and originate, and to analyze and synthesize. All of these processes call for discursive treatment. No answer ready-made in advance will do. Each is a new venture. New types of test questions need to be framed. New scales of values need to be thought out for scoring such tests. In this way the school will be able to appraise its product in terms of ability to think.

It should not be too ambitious to hope for an analogous type of test in the field of attitude and sentiment. In some way the school as an institution for reshaping the mind of youth should be able to appraise the dominant attitudes and sentiments it leaves in the minds of those who are privileged to make this greater exploration—not merely pass through its doors or pursue its courses without hope of ever overtaking them. This it seems is almost an unsurveyed field. Will the teachers wait for the social psychologists, the social workers, and the critics of culture to show them the attitudes, sentiments, prejudices, fears, hates, and loves they are building in their students, or will the teachers discover them and direct their development?

The prognostic tests or tests of aptitude will find important use in the more special phases of educational growth. Many individuals now enrolled in high school need help in discovering and understanding their special capacities. Many are destined to become square pegs in round holes unless they become more critical of their talents and mediocrities. Tests which will help an individual discover special aptitude in mathematics, foreign language, art, music, mechanics, and other fields that require special ability would be useful if used with care and caution. It should not be overlooked, however, that the high-school period itself should be the most comprehensive exploratory course and aptitude test which the indi-

vidual can take. The special aptitude tests should be of value in making this high-school period a more worth-while exploration and a more significant means for developing individual aptitude.

The third principle, while similar in some respects to the second, shifts the emphasis from the individual to the social group. It is the group, as a group, rather than the individual, that is to be measured and appraised. Measures intended to reveal group rather than individual patterns are needed. Consequently, principle three calls for broad, general tests designed for group-survey purposes. These survey tests should attempt to appraise the general level and character of thinking and feeling of social groups, especially school groups. Tests constructed for this purpose should discover from time to time the quality and extent of the cultural patterns acquired by school groups. To state the purpose of such tests from the standpoint of the school, they should be so designed as to furnish a rather satisfactory answer to the question, How well is the school, as the special agency or institution of society for education, performing its functions? or, to put the question more broadly, How effective have the school and other educational institutions been in transmitting to youth a cultural heritage and the techniques necessary for its intelligent reconstruction in facing the needs and problems of modern life?

At the present broad survey measures designed to reveal the "climate of opinion," the "frame of reference," and the "level of appreciations" of social groups at the several stages of their school progress are conspicuous by their absence. Mental tests and comprehensive examinations in subject-matter fields will not alone survey adequately the social products of education. New types of survey instruments need to be invented and perfected if the social aspects of education in a technological, corporate, and democratic social order are to be appraised.

Integration and the Sociological Interpretation of Literature

Arthur L. Bradford

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author is already well-known to readers of this magazine for previous contributions. Mr. Bradford, teacher of English in the Ritenour Consolidated School, Overland, Missouri, does honor to his craft in the following article. In presenting it he has written: "It has long seemed to me that the teacher of literature is most advantageously placed to assist the cause of unification, but real assistance from the English quarter is, I think, dependent upon the literature teacher's willingness to give up certain vagaries of interpretation.*

TO THE progressive ideals towards which education is striving in this era of transition, literature teaching owes a peculiarly important service. Today forward-looking educators are trying to correlate and unify the subjects of the high-school curriculum to the end that four years in school will provide the student with a complex of meaningfully related experiences facilitating his more complete adjustment, physical and spiritual, to modern life. Their efforts will be greatly abetted by a classroom interpretation of literature in terms of its social genesis. Such an interpretation at once informs the pupil more accurately of literature as an art, thereby enhancing his appreciation, and assists him to a synthesis of the disparate, and to him often seemingly unrelated, values of all his social and scientific studies.

In spite of superficial evidence of textbook and study-unit titles that literature and life are happily wedded in the high-school courses, there are substantial reasons for thinking the scholastic relationship between the two a very indifferent one which complicates the pupil's task of fully comprehending either. There is a kind of pedagogical atavism in the method of many teachers whose habit of excerpting their subject from the greater cultural story is a

harking back to the manner of certain of their university preceptors. This borrowing of a usage not without virtue in the more minutely technical courses on the college level has resulted not so much from a fondness for the collegiate pattern as from a want of a definite statement of the sociological origin of literature in such accord with the accepted truths of social psychology as to offer some appeal as a *point d'appui* in literary interpretation. The close connection of art and life is, of course, axiomatic, but attempts to indicate the precise manner of this connection have, on the whole, been too poetic and mystical to be of much service to the teacher in his effort to interpret his subject in cultural terms. A restatement of this relationship in the more precise language of the social psychologist seems, therefore, not malapropos.

Emerson in his essay "Art" poetically records his observation of the kinship of the artist with his world. Of the inescapable influence of contemporaneity he writes:

No man can quite exclude this element of necessity from his labor. No man can quite emancipate himself from his age and country, or produce a model in which the religion, the politics, usages and arts of this time shall have no share. Though he were never so original, never so willful and fantastic, he cannot wipe out of his work every trace of the thoughts amid which it grew. The very avoidance betrays the usage he avoids. Above his will, and out of his sight, he is necessitated by the air he breathes, and the idea on which he and his contemporaries live and toil, to share the manner of his times, without knowing what that manner is.

As to the character of this "necessity" under which the genuine artist must labor and from the imperative influence of which he cannot even momentarily for the gratification of a purely individual whim escape Emerson of-

fers nothing. What is this necessity? Whence the source of this urgency in the artists to recreate the mood and idea of their period and its people? There has been a tendency to leave artistic creativity enveloped in mystery. Critics readily accepting scientific, political, or industrial genius as developing out of the general cultural matrix inferentially often prefer to think of literary genius as somehow unaccountably independent of the social circumstances enveloping it, somehow without attachment to the cultural earth out of which it arises. Some teachers of literature spend more time pointing out the uniqueness of a great literary figure than they use in developing the story of his relationship with the people and the pursuits of his day. That a Milton or a Swift, a Tennyson or a Galsworthy is in a sense unique no one disputes. But the more important fact to the student seeking an equity of meaning as between his literary and other studies is that this often seemingly unique self which the genius expresses is a kind of distillate of the greater societal personality of his particular period. It is not through a speechless wonderment at the anomalous character of the great artist that the student arrives at an understanding of the problems of literature and life. It is rather through a determined search for the relationship that must in every case exist between the writer and his age.

Great writers possess in a rare degree the abilities of perceiving and expressing those vague, inchoate social inclinations for which there is no English equivalent of *zeitgeist*. In the light of rational inquiry this "time spirit" loses much of its mystery. Modern psychology has quashed the once prevalent and obfuscating notion of the crowd mind as a mental entity existing separately from the minds of the individuals constituting the group. Now we know that there is no such thing as a collective or social consciousness with qualities alien to the behavior of the individuals from which it derives. Says Professor Allport:

Collective consciousness and behavior are simply the aggregation of those states and reactions of individuals which, owing to similarities of constitution, training, and common stimulations, are possessed of a similar character.

Thus considered, the locus of the virile, earthy, romantic disposition of the English Tudor period is seen to be the individual of that era. And the Elizabethan "spirit" itself, as manifest in the literature, art, and politics of that time, is, to borrow words of Professor Allport, a "collection of similar response tendencies . . . common ideas and feelings rendered more uniform by the conscious effects of one individual upon another." These "uniform response tendencies," these "common ideas and feelings" were the actual necessity under which Shakespeare labored, in the words of Emerson, "to inscribe a line in the history of the human race."

Literature, as any other thing, is difficult to understand in isolation. In fact, no study of literature, however technical or objective the instructional approach may be, can ever exclude all the social, political, and moral considerations which went into its creation. Even the most maladroit teaching cannot quite denude a poem or a drama of all its significance of humanity's efforts to adjust itself to its world. Shelley's *Prometheus Unbound* cannot be merely a lyric masterpiece, however much the aesthetically disposed instructor might wish it so. It persists in being the intellectual and emotional expression of an Englishman spiritually deeply affected by the social welter of the early nineteenth century. As long as *A Tale of Two Cities* is literature it must also be social history. However little we may require to be pleased with Arnold's *Dover Beach* the poem will always possess an illuminating quality for the reader who wishes the spiritual life of the Victorian Age illumined. It is the teacher's commission to nurture the curiosity which leads the student to seek all the implications of what he reads. It is his business to encourage an appreciation that is total, not fractional, that provides new re-

sources for meeting the issues of life instead of a merely ephemeral satisfaction in contemplating technical virtuosity. The teacher can assist the student to such an attitude only by treating writers as human beings subject to the same play of social influences which condition the thought and attitudes of the ordinary man.

Great books are, to be sure, frequently made by persons with much superficially to mark them from and little perhaps to identify them with the thought and temper of their times. One might, for example, have adjudged the author of *A Doll's House* to be spiritually as remote from his own society as indeed his contemporaries did argue his ideas to be from all sanity and righteousness. Though he appeared to be occupied with an ethical proposition alien to the Scandinavia of his day, Ibsen was in reality articulating nebulous ideas and presentiments of masses who, as Landor said of the poet, were not aware of all that they knew—or felt. Though never orator of the majority opinion, always in fact a detester of it, he was more significantly revelative of his age than many of his contemporaries who were occupied with more widely appreciated themes. Stevenson offers another case in point. It might have appeared that this romancer extraordinary in an era of science, facts, and realism would alone belie the present thesis. But Stevenson's romantic creations, as it later transpired, were not without great significance of the effect of the impact of science and its philosophical corollaries upon

authoritarian religious beliefs to which humanity had anchored its existence for a thousand years.

Millet once said "There is no isolated truth." In so far as literature is true, and only in so far is it of worth, it must be spiritually of the world which generated it. The implication for instruction of this sociologic interpretation is instant. If the study of literature is to assist the student in knitting together the variegated experiences of his scholastic career, it must be understood as a subtle expression of the civic, moral, and scientific development of which he learns in his other studies. The student must be shown that in the social setting lies the key to the often cryptic meaning of what he reads. He must be taught to associate literature with life for the more effectual study of both, instead of abstracting it from its social relationships in order to contemplate its technical minutiae. The true basis of all genuine educational integration lies in interpretation. The appearance of integration can be achieved by adroit manipulation and nominal conjunction of literature with other courses of the curriculum. But a correlation that is to be produced in the thinking of the student must come from an interpretation of this art in terms of mankind's evolutionary experience with the problems of living. In this design lies the possibility of the teacher of literature becoming an educator in fact, and of the student of prose, poetry, and drama becoming a student of life as a whole.

Nonvocational Typewriting in the Junior High School

R. F. Bown

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The State of Washington was settled by pioneers who had reached the geographical ultimate, the last frontier of the westward march. The pioneering spirit is still in Tacoma, it appears—the author and his associates are blazing new trails, pushing out to new frontiers. Here is a preliminary report on an experiment which will go on no one knows how far. One large branch of laurel to the Stewart Intermediate School at Tacoma, Washington, and to its principal, author of this report.*

AMONG THE numerous purposes for which junior high schools were established, training in fundamental processes, pre-vocational training, and worthy use of leisure have been given high rank. Reasonable proficiency in typewriting contributes to all the above purposes. Ability to use a typewriter effectively is unquestionably of great advantage to nearly every one. The junior high school need not concern itself with vocational typing. Nonvocational typewriting has a legitimate and extensive field of service of its own, in giving to pupils the ability to handle their own correspondence; to act as secretaries and officers of lodges, clubs, social and occupational groups; to type the papers, book reviews, and reports that nearly every one writes occasionally; to study more effectively in high school, college, or trade school; to type their own letters, bills, and statements when they become proprietors of small business enterprises; and to increase their versatility and employability as retail clerks, service-station attendants, nurses, teachers, social workers, insurance salesmen, factory foremen, and a whole catalogue of other pursuits, where such an accomplishment is a valuable supplement to other abilities.

Typing for personal use is offered in some junior high schools as elective in the eighth or ninth grades. It has demonstrated its use-

fulness conclusively, even though the personal typing courses have been somewhat handicapped by being subordinated to the aims and demands of strictly vocational typing. Equipment, methods of teaching, and standards of proficiency are generally the same for nonvocational classes as for classes in occupational typing.

The speed and accuracy required of professional typists have somewhat concealed the fact that a moderate rate and a fair degree of accuracy make typing a very useful tool for most people. Not every one has achieved an excellent handwriting style, or expertness in business mathematics, or an easy style in English composition. Yet a moderate skill in these processes is not only an advantage, but a real necessity in the lives of all of us. The usual method for computing net rate in typewriting, conditioned by the demands of vocational typewriting, has large penalties for every kind of technical typewriting error such as struck-over letters, raised capital letters, use of more or less than two hyphens for a dash, use of too many or too few spaces between words, before and after punctuation marks, etc. The high standards of the International Typewriting Rules are commendable in vocational typewriting. It is, however, the rare penman who, although writing satisfactorily for ordinary purpose, maintains similar standards in handwriting. A rate of thirty-five to forty words a minute, with an error or so each minute, is not sufficient for vocational typing, but would be ample for all practical purposes for those who do not use it professionally. In fact this rate is higher than most handwriting rates, and the typing is far more legible and accurate than most manuscript writing.

Typewriting is usually offered in high

schools in the last two years of the commercial course for two reasons. The pupil will arrive at the highest state of proficiency just before graduation and, presumably, just as he is prepared to use his skill occupationally. Then, too, it is probably true that more mature pupils take less time to learn than do the less mature ones. A tool skill, however, should be acquired as soon as it can be used. Reading and writing are taught not at those ages when they can be learned with the greatest facility, but as soon as these skills can be used. Personal typing, therefore, should, if possible, be taught as early as the seventh grade of the junior high school.

Three very practical difficulties have retarded the development of personal typing as a junior-high-school subject. The first of these is the length of time required to achieve even a moderate speed with reasonable accuracy. Senior-high-school pupils, using the Standard Keyboard and taught by orthodox methods, may expect to type thirty or thirty-five words net by the end of the second semester. Some pupils will exceed this rate, but as many more will fall below it. Two semesters of typing in the ninth grade will barely produce adequate proficiency for personal typing. There is scarcely any evidence as to the degree of skill that can be attained by seventh-grade pupils with the Standard Keyboard, but it is reasonable to suppose that a still longer time would be required to develop suitable proficiency with younger children.

The second practical handicap to personal typing as a junior-high-school tool subject is the expense to the school. The teaching of typing is expensive in both teacher time and in equipment. Unless learning time can be reduced materially, there is little immediate prospect that junior high schools generally will include typing in their curricula, even in the ninth grade, and much less that it will be offered as a tool skill in the seventh grade.

The third handicap to personal typing as a junior-high-school subject is the expense to

the pupil. Personal typing implies at once the ownership of a typewriter. Typewriters, however, are not as expensive as automobiles, automatic refrigerators, pianos, radios, or even saxophones. If typing could be learned more easily and more quickly, typewriters would be available quite as readily as are now these other things. Another item of cost to the pupil is in the amount of time required to attain a desirable skill in typewriting. Devoting two or more semesters to typewriting means limiting other phases of the junior-high-school curriculum. A wider use of typewriters is hindered not so much by the expense, as by the time it takes to learn to use them.

Two recent developments in typing indicate that reasonable proficiency can be achieved in a much shorter learning time. One of these is a radical change in keyboard, and the other is a radical change in the method of instruction.

The new keyboard is one devised by Drs. August Dvorak and William L. Dealey of the University of Washington. They discovered that on the so-called Standard Keyboard (1) the left hand is required to do 47 per cent more work than the right hand, (2) a large number (3,000 or more) different words are typed entirely by one hand while the other hand does nothing, (3) the amount of typewriting done by different fingers and on different rows of keys on the typewriter cannot be reconciled with present knowledge of motion study and skill, and (4) a large number of letter sequences require complicated finger contortions (motions) which are called finger *hurdles* and *reaches*. The Standard Keyboard is a psychological atrocity developed when touch typewriting was not contemplated and when it was expected that typewriting would be done with the two index fingers. On the New or Simplified Keyboard designed by Dvorak and Dealey the amount of typewriting done by each hand and each finger is balanced, both hands are required for typewriting all but a few (69) words of the English language,

seventy per cent of all the letters and thirty-five per cent of all the words in sequential copy are done on the middle row of keys, and the complicated hurdling, reaching, and contorting finger motions are eliminated. As a consequence the beginning typist, having in reality less to learn, is expected to attain reasonable proficiency in about half the time usually required.

The other development in time saving is a method of instruction which during the instructional stages shifts the emphasis from accuracy to correct form and rate. Whereas usually the typing teacher at all times places great emphasis upon accuracy of the finished copy, studies in the psychology of skill and motor learning clearly indicate that in the early stages of the acquisition of a skill the correctness (form) of the motions deserves first consideration, speed of those motions second, and refinement and accuracy last. It seems obvious that if the form of the motions is good, and the rate is as high as will be used in actual performance, accuracy will follow. Too much emphasis upon accuracy in the early stages in typewriting instruction tends to fix a slow rate with consequent difficulty when an attempt is made to raise it to a practical and useful level.

It is difficult to establish a high beginning rate on the Standard Keyboard, because it does not lend itself easily to a natural stroking rhythm. It is only the expert who can finally master the difficulties of an unbalanced keyboard, with its frequent jumps from top to bottom rows, its many one-handed words and one-finger letter sequences. The newer keyboard has eliminated these handicaps and permits the early establishment of a relatively high stroking speed without sacrificing accuracy. It is doubtless the appreciation of this last fact that has led the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching to subsidize an experiment in the teaching of personal typing that combines the new scientifically constructed keyboard with a new approach to the problem of teaching typing. This experiment has been

conducted during the past two years under the direction of the department of education at the University of Washington.

During the past semester experimental units have been conducted in Tacoma, Washington, at the Stewart Intermediate School and the Lincoln Senior High School. Tentative results secured with approximately two hundred junior-high-school pupils indicate that these pupils, through the advantages of the improved keyboard and teaching method, are destined to attain in one semester a skill comparable to that ordinarily secured in one year.

The typewriting attainment of seventy-five elementary- and junior-high-school pupils on

TYPEWRITING ATTAINMENT ON STANDARD KEYBOARD*

Semester	No. Pupils	Average Net Words per Minute	Hours of Instruction
2	1,100	26.1	150
3	680	35.0	240
4	500	41.0	330
5	200	45.0	420
6	175	47.0	510

* Joseph L. Kochka, "Norms of Achievement in Speed and Accuracy in Typewriting," *Balance Sheet*, January 1934, pp. 199-206, see also V. H. Carmichael, "Objective Measurement of Accomplishment in Typewriting of High School Commercial Pupils in Indiana," Monographs in Education No. 12, University of Iowa Research Studies in Education, 1932.

TYPEWRITING ATTAINMENT ON SIMPLIFIED KEYBOARD

Grade	No. Pupils	Average Net Words per Minute	Average Hours of Instruction
III	2	7.0	21
IV	16	11.0	28
V	13	12.8	26
VI	19	18.0	26
VII	12	18.0	23
VII	13	19.0	23

the new keyboard who were taught under a project of the Carnegie Foundation study of typewriting at the University, together with the average attainments of 2,655 junior- and senior-high-school pupils in Washington, D.C., who were taught typewriting on

the old keyboard, are reproduced here for comparison.

Examination of the minimum requirement in speed and accuracy on the Standard Keyboard for the first semester (90 hours of instruction) in a large number of high schools in the United States, discloses a range of fifteen to twenty net words per minute. Although the pupils using the Simplified Keyboard had the equivalent of less than one third of a semester of instruction, the average achievement of the sixth-, seventh-, and eighth-grade pupils equals the ordinary performance of high-school students receiving passing grades after one semester. Nor are these pupils, after approximately 30 hours, much behind when compared with the Kochka average for students who have had two semesters of instruction on the Standard Keyboard.

The experiment is still in progress. Certain factors not yet measured may account for a part of the apparent superiority of the Simplified Keyboard and of the "form and

speed before accuracy" method of instruction. Nevertheless the Carnegie Foundation's study in typewriting has so far yielded valuable data. The fact that the Foundation made a second grant to the University of Washington for a continuation of this study is encouraging. If the results secured in controlled experimental classes are duplicated or even approached in regular junior- and senior-high-school classes under ordinary public-school conditions, it will be obvious that the time spent in learning typing will be reduced fifty per cent with one of two results. First, the local school's typing budget will be proportionally reduced, or, with the same equipment and the same teachers, twice as many pupils will be served. Typing for vocational use will undoubtedly retain its present position near the end of the commercial course. But typing as a tool of learning and for personal use will be placed at least as early as the seventh grade in the junior high school.

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Why Offer the Subject of Foreign Trade to High-School Students?

E. Louise Jolly

EDITOR'S NOTE: The schools of Alameda, California, under the stimulating leadership of Superintendent William G. Paden, are constantly experimenting with a view to making the curriculum more practical. The following article was prepared by a member of Mr. Paden's staff and shows how the curriculum reorganization really takes place when the teacher with energy and vision is stimulated to do creative work by a progressive superintendent.

IF WE ARE to educate the "child of today for the world of tomorrow" we must if possible visualize that world and its problems. That world will be constantly growing smaller with the advance in the science of transportation and communication. As it grows smaller there should be a corresponding increase in international trade, in international friendship, and coöperation. It will be necessary to live in a complex civilization. The child of today must learn to think in terms of the world, not in terms of a locality, a State, or even a single nation. He must become world-minded. He should recognize social and economic problems and become interested in participating in their solution.

In Alameda High School we have found the subject of foreign trade a very fruitful source of material around which to develop broader interests, larger point of view, and greater tolerance on the part of a student. Foreign trade is a combination of social studies and business science. The student is given opportunity to develop a better appreciation of our neighbors and of the interdependency of nations for commodities and markets. Interest is awakened in the shipping industry, the merchant marine, international finance, war debts, disarmament, peace, foreign service, current events, and

all world affairs that in any way affect trade. Current events are correlated with class study and their effect upon our foreign trade noted. The student takes interest in reading the economic articles in our current magazines.

From a vocational standpoint we have found this subject particularly valuable to the boys. Many upon graduation secure employment on boats and thus see the world, or in shipping offices actually handling our imports and exports. Some are employed in the foreign-exchange department of our banks. It is a fruitful source of arousing interest in travel and, in a measure, satisfies the wanderlust of the adolescent boy.

To the students of foreign trade other subjects seem more vital, such as United States history, economics, Pacific relations, foreign languages, etc. Alameda has pioneered the subject of foreign trade in the high-school curriculum. It is offered to seniors only and preferably those who have had economics, and economic geography. There is no textbook in foreign trade designed for high-school use which fact is an advantage. A text on such a current, live subject would be out of date before it came off the press. A syllabus is prepared by the instructor and material gathered from many sources. The Foreign Trade Club and the Chamber of Commerce of San Francisco have given the course their support and furnished much valuable material.

In assisting the high-school boy and girl to take his place in the world of tomorrow and be a valuable citizen, a teacher could desire no subject with greater potentialities than foreign trade.

Pacific Relations

Elsa Strait

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mrs. Strait is a teacher of English and history in the high school at Alameda, California. The following article is submitted as an instance of practical creative reorganization of the curriculum.

THE COURSE IN Pacific relations at the Alameda High School was designed to fulfill the following purposes:

1. To enrich the knowledge of students regarding the history, geography, and culture of the principal nations bordering the Pacific, and to secure a fund of information which would serve as a basis for intelligent interpretation of present-day problems involving these nations.

2. To promote open-mindedness towards the people of other races, and to facilitate understanding of them, whether as representatives of national states or as our neighbors on American soil.

The class, about thirty in number, organized themselves as a club, and adopted a constitution which set forth aims as stated here. Officers served in rotation so that every student was enabled to take some part in the administration during the semester.

The agenda of each meeting of the club was largely the work of the students, with at first many suggestions by the instructor. The students soon learned that more activity on their part made the class more interesting, and the meetings of the "club" needed fewer injections of enthusiasm. The chairman presided, minutes were read by the secretary, giving a survey of what had been done the day before and announcing the program of the day. The next order of business was five minutes of news topics on current problems. From these items we often were referred to texts, encyclopedias, maps, etc., for facts, figures, and further description. Special reports were suggested, assigned, committees appointed, and debates programmed, as occasion arose.

To satisfy grading requirements, short ob-

jective tests were given on the textbook¹ and current news facts, outlines and maps were marked, but grades were largely conditioned by the amount of participation in activities of the club. Something was expected of every one: poor students were encouraged to read easier material, *Asia, Foreign Travel*, fiction about the orient. Better students were required to make more exhaustive studies and to contribute more in quantity as well as quality. Those who liked to work with their hands made maps, charts, or mounted pictures; those who were more literate wrote essays and all took part in debates and open forums.

Since the class contained representatives of the Japanese, Filipino, and Negro races, and since one member had lived in India and another in China, we had some problems in keeping the class relationship "pacific." Every point of view was allowed to be heard and the students learned to listen and to judge for themselves. Propaganda is not so effective when it is recognized as such, and we tried to achieve the ideal of "light—not heat" in discussions. "What is your authority?" gradually replaced the more common challenge, "Where do you get that stuff?"

Prejudices cannot be wiped out in one semester, but the very fact that one has heard the other side of the question may prevent the forming of new prejudices or the intensification of the old ones, or at the very least one may learn to say "I am prejudiced." The instructor enjoyed this class, and the students seemed to find it worth while, even though it came at the end of the day and was crowded with anything but the "precollegiate." Perhaps it was a class in "Pacific relations"!

¹ *History of the Orient*, by G. N. Steiger, H. O. Beyer, and C. Benitez (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1926, IX+469 pages.

A syllabus distributed by the Institute of Pacific Relations, San Francisco, was most helpful in guiding this course. Their list of materials and bibliographies were especially valuable.

A Survey of Junior-High-School Practices in New York State

Robert W. Frederick¹

EDITOR'S NOTE: Professor Frederick and his colleagues at the New York State Teachers College, Albany, had a very practical reason for making the survey reported here—it is in no sense academic. You may disagree entirely with the "weightings" given certain items. You will be satisfied with the author's emphasis on this item and his indifference to another only if you hold to the same philosophy that he does. In reading this report, and in using it, you may discount any parts you choose, but it remains a valuable study for it does not start and stop in the middle—it points out emphatically what the author finds to be done, the "lines of battle," and the "battles yet to be won." The author and the editors will be glad to have your comments on this study.

TO EFFECTIVELY prepare teachers for the junior high schools we find it necessary to keep in touch with practices in the schools of the State. We have, therefore, planned to study and report the practices in operation every two years. Herein will be recorded a summary of the findings for 1934. The findings for 1932 were reported in two parts.²

Surveys of practices do not, of course, tell us what ought to be, but what is. This knowledge is, however, of considerable value in that it provides a measure of how practice conforms to theory and indicates the educational battles yet to be won.

The 1934 survey was carried on with the assistance of the graduate students in the writer's classes in the principles of junior-high-school education. Each student was furnished with a check list to guide the recording of information. In many instances, the principals of the schools visited helped the student arrive at a rating. It is believed

that this procedure eliminates many of the defects of the questionnaire method and gives the student an intimate acquaintance with at least one school.

The schools studied were confined to New York State. As in 1932, New York City was not included. In all, 91 schools are included in this report. They are widely distributed over the State but the majority is to be found in the eastern area. Individual ratings of particular schools are not for obvious reasons included.³

In the accompanying table the average percentage rating for each element of practice in the junior high schools of the State is given. The table answers the question, What are the practices in the typical junior high school? School administrators can use this table as a personal check on their own schools to see how well they compare with the hypothetical average and to make more definitive the next lines of advance.

No claim is made to completeness. Other items could have been included. Perhaps certain items might have been omitted. Certainly no one will make the mistake of attaching undue weight to small differences in percentage of attainment. Such a survey as this aims at only general trends not for statistical, manipulative accuracies. There will be those who will want to quarrel with the weightings given to particular items. Changes in weighting indicate differences in philosophy which puts the matter into the realm of speculation. Suffice it to say here that any man has the right to express his views. The weightings given here are a rough expression of a philosophy of the junior high school held by the writer.

¹ Mr. J. H. Jones and Miss Ernestine Hillsley, graduate students in junior-high-school education, helped materially in the preparation of this report.

² For the 1932 report see: Robert W. Frederick and Isabel Jarvis, "A Survey of Junior High Schools," *New York State Education*, XX, 9, June 1933, pp. 705-707, 762.

Robert W. Frederick and Ione Kinkade, "A Survey of Extracurricular Activities," *The Clearing House*, VIII, 4, December 1933, p. 224.

³ I should be happy to have principals rate their own schools and send me a copy of their rating. On request to the author, copies of the check list will be sent to interested principals.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL VISITING CHECK LIST

Name of school *Composite of 91 schools* City *New York State, except New York City*

Principal Three-year or six-year unit

Reported by Enrollment

Date visited

Credits 1934

*(Attach samples of programs, report cards, etc.)*Allowed Average Percentage of
Possible for 91 Schools Attainment

I. Seventh, eighth, and ninth grades separately organized

own	10	6.8	68
1. Building	10	7.2	72
2. Principal	10	7.1	71
3. Newspaper	10	7.4	74
4. Student council	10	9.1	91
5. Assemblies	10	—	—
Total	50	—	—

II. Individual differences recognized by

1. Grouping	15	12.7	84
2. Optional activities in each unit of work	10	6.6	66
3. Adjusted marking	10	6.1	61
4. Special classes	10	4.6	46
a) Ungraded			
b) Clinic			
c) Remedial			
5. Differentiated assignments	15	10.3	68
6. Special courses	15	9.5	62
7. Guidance	5	4.0	80
8. Special plan as Winnetka, Dalton, etc.	5	1.3	26
9. Large use of unit, contract, job plans	10	6.5	65
10. Testing—largely diagnostic	10	6.7	67
11. Attention to differences in social-economic status	10	4.4	44
12. Attention to differences, emotional stability	10	5.7	57
13. Attention to differences, special interest or talent	10	7.2	72
Total	135	—	—

III. Definite plan of pupil guidance

1. Full-time counsellor	20	9.8	49
2. Part-time counsellor	10	3.5	35
3. Adequate records	15	11.4	—
4. Systematic interviews	10	6.8	68
5. Courses in occupations	5	3.7	74
6. Placement work	5	1.1	22
7. Assembly programs of guidance nature	5	3.3	66
Total	70	—	—

(Attach samples of programs, report cards, etc.)

(Continued)

IV. Large use of directed study

V. Modernized curriculum

1. Social studies in place of history and geography			
Seventh grade	10	5.8	58
Eighth grade	10	6.4	64
Ninth grade	10	6.1	61
2. No required foreign language	10	8.0	80
3. No required mathematics in ninth year	10	5.4	54
4. General shop for boys	10	7.4	74
5. Home economics for girls	10	8.3	83
6. Large amount of self-selected reading in literature	5	4.5	90
7. General science in grades 7, 8, 9	10	8.0	80
8. Physical education			
a) For all	5	4.8	96
b) Large use of sports: golf, skating, etc.	10	7.7	77
9. Courses in occupations	5	3.7	74
10. Single curriculum with variables	10	7.3	73
11. Exploratory language courses	10	7.1	71
12. Exploratory commerce courses	10	5.9	59
Total	135	—	—

VI. Large use of modern methods

1. Little simple text recitation	5	4.7	94
2. Use of project method	5	4.0	80
3. Contract or job plan	5	3.8	76
4. Discussion method	5	3.1	62
5. Unit plan	5	4.3	86
6. Excursions	5	4.1	82
7. Collateral reading	5	3.8	76
8. Lecture demonstrations	5	4.5	90
9. Visual aids	5	3.6	72
10. Correlation of subjects	5	4.3	86
Total	50	—	—

	(Attach samples of programs, report cards, etc.)	Credits 1934		
		Possible	Allowed for 91 Schools	Average Percentage of Attainment
<i>(Continued)</i>				
VII. Rich extracurricular program				
1. Clubs for all—varied in character	10	7.9	79	XII.
2. Some form of democratic pupil self-government	10	8.8	88	
3. Traffic or courtesy squad	10	8.8	88	
4. Pupil publications				
a) Newspaper	5	3.9	78	
b) Handbook	5	0.9	18	
c) Literary	5	1.2	24	
d) Homeroom papers	5	.8	16	XIII.
5. Intramural athletics	10	9.0	90	
6. Definite activity period on school time	15	12.3	82	
	—	—	—	
Total	75	—	—	XIV.
VIII. Homeroom program				
1. All pupils in homeroom	10	9.7	97	
2. Period at least one-half hour in length	10	8.6	86	
3. Teacher thoroughly familiar with each pupil's				
a) Intelligence	5	4.2	84	
b) Home environment	5	3.3	66	
c) Vocational goal	5	3.1	62	
d) Educational goal	5	3.6	72	
e) Emotional life	5	2.9	58	
f) School progress	5	4.8	96	
g) Extracurricular participation	5	4.6	92	
4. Units of study for homeroom period on matters of concern to the pupils	10	6.7	67	
	—	—	—	
Total	65	—	—	XV.
IX. Orientation and articulation				
1. New students orientated with respect to				
a) Physical plant	5	4.0	80	List
b) Curriculum	5	4.2	84	
c) Extraclass program	5	3.6	72	
d) Administrative details	5	4.0	80	
2. Articulation (definite provisions for)				
a) With elementary school	10	7.9	79	Spa
b) With senior high school	10	7.5	75	sion o
	—	—	—	signifi
Total	40	—	—	lists :
X. Complete departmentalization (see correlation)	15	13.7	91	cent a
	—	—	—	to sixt
Total	15	13.7	91	zation
XI. Emphasis on practical citizenship				er can
1. Through constructive discipline	10	8.6	86	State a
2. Student council	5	3.9	78	media
3. School projects	5	4.2	84	
4. Community projects	5	2.7	54	
5. Homeroom units on school citizenship	5	3.9	78	
	—	—	—	Pro
Total	30	—	—	

(Attach samples of programs, report cards, etc.)

(Continued)

	Possible	Allowed for 91 Schools	Average	Percentage of Attainment
XII. Creative spirit stimulated by				<i>Credits 1934</i>
1. Pupil authority	5	3.5	70	
2. Pupil committee membership	5	4.3	86	
3. Creative English (playwriting)	5	3.0	60	
4. Individualizing for superior	5	2.3	46	
Total	20	—	—	—
XIII. A social, not an academic institution	25	—	—	—
Total	25	18.7	75	
XIV. Marks not emphasized—tests				
1. Letter system of marking—5 letters	5	3.5	70	
2. No report cards	15	.9	.06	
3. Or, only four times a year	5	2.3	46	
4. Test mostly for diagnosis	5	2.8	56	
5. Marks not glorified	5	2.8	56	
Total	35	—	—	—
XV. General atmosphere				
1. Friendly	30	26.9	89	
2. Happy	30	26.6	88	
3. Little tension	20	16.6	83	
4. Little drive or coercion	20	15.2	76	
5. Experimental (definite studies in progress)	30	17.2	57	
Total	130	—	—	—
Grand Total	935			

List here items which should be considered in evaluating this particular school and assign credits.

Space does not permit the detailed discussion of each point in the check list. The more significant conclusions are presented in these lists: (1) reorganization less than fifty per cent attained; (2) reorganization only fifty to sixty per cent attained; and (3) reorganization almost completely attained. The reader can make his own list of items in intermediate stages of reorganization for the State at large and for his own school.

Progress is being made. Year after year

by slow degrees reorganization takes place. It is to be hoped that the junior high school will never crystallize into set patterns or organization and administration, but that new goals will be set from time to time. The responsibility lies with school principals, for "educational frontiers" are not established by professors at their desks or editors of magazines. They are forged by mothers of children across the principal's desk.

REORGANIZATION LESS THAN FIFTY PER CENT ATTAINED

The lines of battle are here indicated.

	Percentage of Attainment
1. Individualization by special classes	46
2. Special plans as Winnetka, Dalton, etc.	26
3. Attention to differences in economic status	44
4. Special person charged with guidance either as a full-time or part-time counselor	49
	35
5. Placement work for those who must leave school (This may of course mean that pupils do not leave the junior high school to go to work.)	22
6. A handbook for pupils	18
7. Literary publications (Newspapers have taken the field.)	24
8. Homeroom publications (an unimportant point)	16
9. Teachers do not know the emotional life of their children (a tragedy)	58
10. The superior child is still neglected (a real challenge)	46
11. Report cards still blight the junior high school (The traditional report card should not be tolerated much longer.)06

REORGANIZATION ONLY FIFTY TO SIXTY PER CENT ATTAINED

These battles are yet to be won.

1. Attention to differences in emotional needs of children	57
2. The seventh-grade shift from geography to social studies	58
3. Mathematics is still too frequently required in the ninth year	54
4. Exploration of commerce and business is neglected	59
5. Junior high schools still stand apart from the community they serve	54
6. Tests are not used for diagnosis	56
7. Marks are still glorified (and yet we claim we are a social not an academic institution)	56
8. The experimental attitude needs to be extended	57

REORGANIZATION ALMOST COMPLETELY ATTAINED

Some battles are won.

1. Separate assemblies for the junior high school	91
2. Large amount of free reading in literature (a bright spot)	90
3. Physical education for all pupils	96
4. Elimination of the simple textbook-recitation method of teaching (I hope this is true but I have reason to think that principals <i>hope</i> their teachers are using other methods.)	94
5. Lecture demonstrations are now being widely used in science work	90
6. Intramural athletics have found their place	90
7. The battle for homerooms has been won (Now what do we do in these rooms?)	97
8. Departmentalization is common practice. (Perhaps we should have some measure of the degree to which subjects are correlated.)	91

The Recreation Center

Claude F. Turner

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Turner is boys' adviser at the James Monroe Junior High School, Seattle, Washington. With a great economy of words he has written one more important bit of evidence for the record of accomplishment in the field of recreation. The article tells about a student-directed community center in one school, and it contains, between the lines, many questions about boys and girls and leisure and recreation in your school.*

EDUCATORS ARE realizing that if the school is to meet its full obligation to the community, the child must be shown pleasant and profitable ways of spending his extra time. The student of today must be taught to use to better advantage the increased leisure that is the inevitable result of modern life. Progressive schools are meeting this challenge through increased emphasis upon such curricular activities as music, art, library instruction, and special classes for handicraft instruction; through the so-called extracurricular program of athletics, of intramural play and games for both boys and girls, and by well-organized activity club programs.

The James Monroe Junior High School of Seattle is definitely committed to the above program and in addition has incorporated recreation centers that are unique in the junior-high-school life of this section. Recreation centers were initiated to provide an additional opportunity for pupils to employ profitably their extra time before and after the regular school day. As the plan of operation is similar for both boys and girls, this article will treat only of the boys' recreation center.

During the spring of 1934 we were fortunate in having at the disposal of the Boys' Club a large room intended for a print shop but not yet equipped. Leaders of the club were interested in the idea of a recreation center and soon "sold" the plan to the boys of the school. The purchase of equipment

was financed through a membership campaign. Ninety-four per cent of the boys endorsed the project through the purchase of membership cards.

Materials were purchased and three regulation ping-pong tables constructed by boys in the woodworking classes. Double sets of ping-pong equipment and several sets of checkers and checker boards were provided. Some of the boys became so enthusiastic over the project that they brought favorite games of their own. A reading table in one corner of the room was an additional feature that gained marked popularity. Magazines of invention, science, outdoor life, and boys' fiction were available at this table. These magazines were donated by members of the Boys' Club.

The direction of the recreation center was placed in the hands of the Boys' Club officers and the Boys' Advisory Council. This group drew up a set of regulations placing the operation of the center squarely up to the boys. The opening statement of the regulations is quoted: "This recreation center has been established for the benefit of the boys of this school. It will be kept open as long as you show that you desire and appreciate it. We are expecting the conduct of members in this room to be kept up to the recognized standards of our school." A committee of twenty-four older boys was appointed to have direct charge of the center. Two boys were in charge each time the center was open. The schedule was so arranged that boys were never on duty more than twice each week.

The recreation center was patronized by large groups from the beginning. It was not unusual for fifty or sixty boys to be in the room at one time either playing games, enjoying a visit, or reading. Equipment was well cared for and conduct throughout was

all that could be desired. The boys understood from the beginning that it was their room and that the success or failure of the project was in their hands. The response to the challenge was indeed gratifying.

The financial investment in the modern public-school plant makes it imperative that space be utilized to its fullest extent. When classes convened in September a print shop was established and our recreation center was forced to move to new quarters. We now occupy one half of the lunchroom. The other half of the room is used as the girls' recreation center. Tables are set up in this space after school and left until classes convene the following morning. Enthusiasm for the project continues at a high pitch. By this move we are putting to use space that at the most is occupied for only a fractional part of the school day. The problem that confronts us at the present time is to meet the demand for more tables and equipment.

Following one semester of experience with the recreation center, representative groups of the school were asked to express their opinion of the project. The consensus of opinion was overwhelmingly in favor of the recreation center. Great stress was placed upon the fact that it furnished recreational opportunities the majority of the students could not finance for themselves. A few of these student comments follow:

It is convenient for the boys and girls who do not get a chance to use these things at their own

homes. They like to play the games but cannot get enough money to buy the equipment.

Our recreation center is worth while because it gives us something to do after school.

The recreation center is a fine project. It gives us a chance for good recreation after a day of hard study.

I think it is a worth-while project especially during the winter when it is cold and wet outside.

I think the recreation room is worth while because it gives us an opportunity to learn how to play different games.

I like the recreation center because I've learned to play a few games and do not feel so dumb when invited to play at the homes of my friends.

The recreation center offers me an opportunity to play quiet games after school hours. It has helped to teach me good sportsmanship and quick thinking.

The educational value of such a project lies in its worth as a socializing force. Here the pupils see the practical result of group coöperation for a common purpose. It affords an opportunity for the students to plan and manage their own activities in a democratic manner. Here boys may meet their companions in friendly competition in an atmosphere of true sportsmanship; an atmosphere generated through respect for the rights of their fellows. In the last analysis the test of the value of any educational project is its contribution to the growth and development of the individuals participating. Judged on the basis of this criterion we feel that the recreation center is making a worthwhile contribution to the life of our school.

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The Improvement of Instruction in Secondary Schools

E. W. Jacobsen

EDITOR'S NOTE: *E. W. Jacobsen is Superintendent of Schools of Oakland, California. The plan he describes in the following article seems to the editors to be full of interest. It should be a source of inspiration to teachers and administrators who have striven for an effective method of coöperative effort.*

SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS, as a whole, are anxious and willing to improve and modernize the institution with which they are associated. They recognize certain truths in the criticisms hurled at our senior and junior high schools. Thoughtful and friendly observers have pointed out that our secondary schools are out of touch with the times, that much of the subject matter taught there cannot help the student to understand either himself or the world in which he lives, and that the organization of this subject matter and its presentation is in many cases not in accordance with facts associated with the growth and development of the adolescent.

Professional secondary-school teachers will point out that certain conditions make it practically impossible for them to modernize their subject matter and classroom practice. Perhaps the greatest obstacle in the teacher's way has been the lack of sympathetic, professional leadership on the part of her superior officers; that is, the principal, the superintendent, and the supervisor. Principals and superintendents are so busy with the operation of the school machinery that little or no real leadership is available from this source. Supervisors and departmental heads have become so entwined in the meshes of administration and clerical work that little leadership is forthcoming from them. Professors of secondary education have valiantly tried to carry the burden of leadership, but their numbers have been small and, in most cases,

because of their isolation from real secondary-school problems, they have led their followers into academic, philosophical, and theoretical educational utopias that are practically unattainable.

Professional secondary-school teachers realize that they must know and understand their students if they are to direct their learning. How realizable is this basic action when the teacher is meeting at least five classes of thirty to forty-five students each day; that is, from one hundred and fifty to two hundred separate individuals a day, not counting homeroom and extracurricular-activity contacts? Not only is there little chance of modernizing the subject matter and the classroom practices under these conditions but anything more than a superficial attempt to direct learning is impossible.

Modern tools are necessary to modernize classroom practices and subject matter. With barely sufficient funds available to pay salaries and building maintenance, only the minimum number of books, talking pictures, radios, demonstration material, pictures, new specimens, magazines, newspapers, and other similar necessities for carrying on an up-to-date program can be obtained.

The Oakland public schools, under the leadership of Superintendent Willard E. Givens, are attempting to improve secondary-school instruction by furnishing sympathetic, understanding, professional leadership, by beginning to reduce the number of pupil-teacher contacts, and by furnishing some of the modern tools of instruction.

The first step in the plans for improving secondary instruction has been the reorganization of the superintendent's staff to furnish vertical supervision. One assistant superintendent is in charge of administration,

a second is in charge of individual guidance, and a third is responsible for instruction in the entire school system. The assistant superintendent in charge of instruction is relieved of all administrative responsibilities and gives his entire attention to furnishing professional leadership in his field of responsibility. This field of instruction is divided into three subfields; that is, subject matter (that which is taught), classroom practices (the methods used in teaching), and tools of instruction (books, specimens, radio, pictures, etc.). It is recognized that these fields cannot be separated in directing the learning of pupils. Yet for the purposes of analysis and study, this separation is feasible as well as necessary. In addition to the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, an additional vice principal, whose only duty is to furnish professional leadership and guidance to the teachers, has been added to each one of the senior high schools except two where building changes do not make this addition practical. The principal is still responsible for the instruction given in his school, but the actual carrying out of the program is in the hands of the vice principal in charge of instruction. Heads of departments or chairmen still remain, for specialists in each field are necessary. The teachers in the senior high school now have a leader to whom they can look for help and guidance in carrying out a program for modernization of subject matter and of classroom practices. In addition, this vice principal in charge of instruction teaches one class. He leads by example.

In the second place, in each of the subject-matter fields taught in the secondary schools, a council has been formed with the supervisor of the subject as chairman and a few outstanding teachers from each level as members; that is, in any given field, such as social studies or science, there will be a few outstanding teachers from the elementary, junior-high, and senior-high-school levels. These subject-matter councils will have as their chief function the evaluation and recommendation for improvement of subject

matter and classroom practices in the specialized fields. Each council will, of course, appoint such committees as may be necessary to study the field in detail. The supervisors are not only in charge of these subject-matter councils but their responsibilities are also arranged on a vertical basis in most cases; that is, the supervisor of language and literature is responsible for his subject from the elementary school through the senior high school.

In the third place, in order to improve instruction it is necessary to have a very practical program of experimentation. It is planned to set up centers, which will be called Teaching Observing Centers, in each one of the major fields, where teachers may see modernized subject matter being taught by the best accepted classroom practices under actual classroom situations. These Teaching Observing Centers have been carried out on the elementary-school level and have been unusually successful. Secondary-school teachers, like others in general, understand better when they see the supervisor's ideas carried out in real situations.

Experiments are also being carried out with the new tools of instruction, such as the talking moving-picture machine, radio, new type of workbooks, and some demonstration material. The use of a new tool often means the development of new classroom practices or at least a very marked modification of present practices. For instance, the use of radio and talking pictures very definitely means the modification of our present practices. The wise use of these new tools can only be developed after careful experimentation over a long period of time. To ask teachers to use a new tool without being able to instruct them how to get the greatest benefit from it means not only a loss of time as well as poor teaching but it also delays the use of this particular tool for a long time if a teacher's experience with it is not successful.

The fourth step in the Oakland program is to try to find the most satisfactory way of

grouping children for instruction. The assignment of pupils to a teacher will depend somewhat upon the spread of the capacity of that group. A class of forty students may be assigned to a teacher if it is very evident that the capacities of these students are very similar. However, if there is a wide difference in capacity, the number should be and will be very much smaller.

In conclusion, it may be said that the Oakland public schools' staff is attacking the matter of improvement of instruction of the secondary schools on many planes through

a coöperative professional program which plans to give teachers professional leadership, modernized subject matter which has been worked out by the teachers in each field under the direction of subject-matter councils, aid through observing carefully worked out experiments in subject matter and classroom practices, and finally, by attempting to reduce the number of contacts which teachers have to make with children. It is not expected that this program will show appreciable results in less than five years.

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School Law Review

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A 1935 JUDICIAL DEFINITION OF A MODERN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

"A modern 'senior high school' is usually confined to the last three years of the former high-school course, and offers instruction which is designed for older and more advanced students, applying different methods, allowing more freedom both in choice of subjects and from routine followed in schools of lower grade, and being in many respects comparable to colleges of a generation or two ago. The junior high school, a more recent development, usually covers the work formerly done in the first year of the senior high school, together with the work formerly given in the last two years of the elementary grades. A very marked change takes place in children about the time they leave a junior high school and enter a senior high school and both the subject matter taught and the method of teaching and handling pupils is quite different in the two classes of schools. The difference between these two kinds of schools is so marked in our opinion, it should not be held that a person teaching classes in both schools at the same time is holding one position only, although the employer in each case is the same district."

The above decision is the most recent court definition of a modern junior and senior high school. It would appear that the court had a better conception of modern educational practices than some of the ossified school administrators whose concept of the senior high school is much the same as it was ten or fifteen years ago. Today, educational practice is being recognized by the courts in the wider and broader sense of giving opportunity to children according to their native ability, mental capacity, and special talents. The schools of our day are not organized for the special few who may go to college, but the tax-payer's money goes to benefit all children of all mental abilities, high or low, by means of numerous and varied courses, adapted to special needs, so that children of certain social ages may be educated together whether it be in senior high school or junior high school. No longer is intelligent administration of high schools concerned with a single standard of achievement, but many standards adapted to life situations. It is the many-standard institution that is a real service to the community.

See Walsh v. Board of Trustees, etc., 37 P (2d) 700, decided January 7, 1935.

TEACHER HOLDING TWO POSITIONS, WHERE ONE IS ABOLISHED

A teacher teaching in a senior high school and also in a junior high school, and having obtained tenure in the school system, may lose the right to one position if the subject matter and work is discontinued in one position, but such teacher retains tenure in the other position where the work is not discontinued.

The court in this decision takes the opposite view of the Commissioner of Education of New York State on a similar question.

See Walsh v. Board of Trustees, Supra.

JUDICIAL DEFINITION OF SENIOR- AND JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL MUSIC

"The teaching of music in school classes is designed not to make finished musicians, but merely to give a broad general training for its cultural value and perhaps for its value in arousing an interest in such individuals as are qualified to go on with private lessons."

Perhaps music teachers would like to add something to this definition of the courts.

See Walsh v. Board of Trustees, Supra.

PERMANENT TEACHER

Standing as a "permanent teacher" is related not only to the subject taught, but to the position occupied and the kind of school where the probationary period was passed. The right of tenure is the right of the teacher to continue in the position to which he was elected and which is equivalent to that occupied for the probationary period.

See Walsh v. Board of Trustees, Supra.

QUESTIONS

Where a pupil is suspended from a school for violating the rules of the institution, is such a pupil entitled to the return of any tuition paid?

If a pupil is suspended until he agrees to abide by the rules of the institution he cannot claim that he was expelled nor can he obtain a refund of tuition paid to the institution since the suspension is only temporary and is such as would entitle the pupil to return as soon as he is willing to abide by the reasonable rules and regulations of the institution.

See Tyler Commercial College v. Heslep, 1931 42 S. W. (2d), 800.

Can a school board become liable for slander and libel of a teacher where it has negligently permitted statements to be made which were not a part of their records or have not afforded a teacher a hearing in accordance with the law?

In New York State, boards of education are liable for their torts where negligence can be imputed to their acts. They act negligently whenever they violate the statute and, in some cases, may be held personally responsible. In many other States, boards of education may not be held liable where they have published a libel or spread it, but the one responsible may personally be held liable as a malicious libeller if the statement so published or used implied that the board of education at an official meeting found a teacher guilty of wrong-

doing, whereas no such record was made or hearing had.

See Corpus Juris on Libel and Slander.

SCHOOL BUS DRIVER

A school bus driver is liable for injuries to a pupil who is permitted by the driver to alight at a dangerous cross street if the child is struck by another approaching automobile. The driver must exercise ordinary care to ascertain whether the way is safe and to advise the pupil accordingly. The liability attaches where the bus driver acts as a private individual who undertakes to transport children safely to school.

Tipton v. Willey, 191 N. E. 804, 47 Ohio, App. 236.

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Book Reviews

Adventures with Books and Libraries (a workbook for junior- or senior-high-school pupils). New York: American Book Company, 1934. Heavy paper covers, 193 pages.

This workbook, for all who claim superior values for workbooks in teaching, should be a welcome discovery. The 70 exercises are grouped in 16 units, among them the following: Opening the Gates to Knowledge; Discovering Why and How Books are Made; How We Cherish and Care for Books; Developing Better Book-Using Attitudes; Learning How to Learn; The Dictionary—the Most Useful of All Reference Books; Learning to Plan Your Work; How to Read Pictures, Drawings, and Graphs; How Books Are Classified in a Library; Using the Card Catalogue to "Find It Yourself," etc.

J. C. D.

World Background, by CHARLES A. COULOMB. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, 552 pages, \$1.48.

Mr. Coulomb has accomplished with credit the well-nigh impossible task of presenting a connected and interesting story of the world from the earliest beginnings of man to the present time within the small compass of a five-hundred page book. This task is much greater, of course, when the work is designed for children rather than for grown-ups.

There are serious objections to compressing the story of man into one small volume. In such a work the details are so abbreviated as to give only a faint picture, thus leaving little or no impression upon the mind of the child. If the work is at all worth while the writer must use great discretion in the selection and treatment of the materials for presentation. This condition the author of *World Backgrounds* has met uncommonly well. The work is distinctly praiseworthy in both selection and treatment, though there are included far too many topics for such a work. Historians must bear in mind that a perfunctory and inadequate discussion of a topic is far worse than leaving it out. In a subtopic under the general topic, Autocratic Government in France, the author undertakes to show how parliaments, as well as kings, are sometimes autocratic. He refers to the Irish parliament at the time of the expulsion of James II of England without showing the relation between this topic and the general subject.

The pictures in the book are well selected. The maps, however, are poor. They are not sufficiently

clear to be interpreted readily by children.

DUDLEY F. MCCOLLUM

Principles and Practices of Financial Accounting for Schools, by JOHN GUY FOWLKES. Milwaukee: E. M. Hale and Company, 1934, xvi + 238 pages.

Dr. Fowlkes has given us a highly practical treatment of a problem that is of fundamental importance not only to administrators but also to school board members and other citizens who would understand the financial problems involved in education. The volume contains not only approved practices but also a clear presentation of the principles to which such practices must conform. It will be of great value both as a handbook for fiscal officers and as an exposition on which they may base their own explanations to finance committees and to the general public. P. W. L. C.

Mein Erstes Deutsches Buch, by MARGARET B. HOLZ. Richmond, Virginia: Johnson Publishing Company, 1934, xvii + 448 pages.

Mein Erstes Deutsches Buch is first in more senses than one. It is the first book on German grammar the author has published; it is a first book for pupils in the study of German; it is, moreover, first class throughout.

In 1841 the German educator, Mager, put out his grammar, *Für die Kinder ist das Beste eben genug*—"the best is only just good enough for our children." This thought was doubtless the beacon that guided Miss Holz in the composition of her grammar and reader.

The arrangement is clear; no Ariadne thread is needed to take the pupil through the supposedly intricate maze of *der*, *die*, *das*, or the choice between *mir* and *mich*. The *vocabularies* are stocked with easy words, calculated to stir the interest of the pupil. The manner of presenting grammatical problems is so effective that difficulties are fore stalled.

That section of the book which deals with phonetics should prove most helpful to the pupil in his efforts to catch the melody of the German tongue. A graph of comparative intonation might profitably have found a place in this chapter. The reading matter, which has been selected with meticulous care, is attractive and instructive. Altogether, the book testifies to the author's mastery of the subject she presents.

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Teaching Speech in Secondary Schools, by LETITIA RAUBICHECK. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1935.

A Manual of Speech Correction On the Contract Plan, by RUTH B. MANSER. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1935.

Here are two volumes that should be heralded from the housetops for the benefit of all teachers and prospective teachers of speech. The first, *Teaching Speech in Secondary Schools*, is of fundamental importance in the field, for it is the first book in methodology in speech. It fills, therefore, a long-felt need and should make less chaotic the state of speech teaching in secondary schools.

The book is divided into four parts: The Problem, The Science of Speech, The Speech Arts, and Speech Pathology. These parts are divided into readable and logical subdivisions, presenting practically all aspects of speech training at the secondary level. There are many factors that might well be read by elementary-school and college teachers of speech as well as secondary-school teachers. Each chapter concludes with a series of problems for thought and discussion and a splendid bibliography.

The second book, *A Manual of Speech Correction On the Contract Plan*, is the first practical application of the Dalton contract plan to the subject of speech correction. This book contains brief, but adequate, chapters on the physiology of voice, voice problems, the speech mechanism, the sounds of English, strong and weak forms, and speech disorders. There follows a series of excellent practice material and contracts covering such defects as breathiness, hoarse voice, nasality, de-nasalization, foreign accent, lisping, stammering, and defective phonation. These are arranged in such a way that the student can readily be trained to grade his own improvement or note his lack of achievement.

DOROTHY I. MULGRAVE

Essays Old and New, by ESSIE CHAMBERLAIN. Revised and enlarged edition. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1934.

Essays Old and New appeared first in 1926, a splendid collection of essays for college classes. Because of the wealth of material that has been published within the last decade, this volume has been enlarged by twelve essays, and now constitutes a very significant collection of old and contemporary material.

There are twelve new essays, including a chapter from the remarkable *Autobiography of Lincoln Steffens*, "Column Left" by Stuart Chase, an essay on Dwight W. Morrow from *Interpretations* by Walter Lippmann, a tribute called "My

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Mother" by Lizette Woodworth Reese, and a penetrating selection "On War" by George Santayana.

Most of the additions are well-timed and challenging in the light of the social, economic, and cultural problems pressing on us.

It is interesting to note that, in the compilation of this new material, over two hundred teachers were asked their choice of authors for high-school collections. Robert Louis Stevenson ranked first with ninety-six teachers. Stevenson's delightful essay on "An Apology for Idlers," as timely now as ever, opens the collection.

DOROTHY I. MULGRAVE

Learning How to Learn, by WALTER B. PITKIN, HAROLD C. NEWTON, AND OLIVE P. LANGHAM. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 194 pages.

The stand is taken that learning is based upon the acquisition of certain good habits, as concentration, grasping the broader relations among facts, selecting items relevant to one's purpose, and reflecting upon new facts in the light of all that one has previously learned. The authors have functioned the point of view relative to the formation of good habits by providing pertinent learning exercises applied to the habits in point.

Although the authors have revealed how learning may be routinized there is still the consideration that much of the real learning that takes place does not follow a mechanized procedure. Edison, Newton, and a host of others were very adept at learning, not because they used a scheme but because they were motivated, namely the internal drive that is the *sine qua non* of learning was touched. Incidentally the authors have allotted but eight pages of the book to the influence of interest in learning.

E. R. G.

Proficiency Tests and Workbook for Second Year Latin, by LILLIAN GAY BERRY. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company. List price, 56 cents.

The purpose of this workbook, as stated by Professor Berry, is "to measure students' achievement in obtaining the objectives set up for the second year of Latin." She also emphasizes its usefulness for diagnosis of individual difficulties and for drill.

The book includes tests on vocabulary, forms, rules, derivatives, composition, comprehension, and translation, even tests on such varied material as mythology, States' mottoes, and familiar quotations. The material has been culled from *Viri Romae*, *Fabulae Faciles*, Caesar's *Bellum Gallicum* and *Bellum Civile*, and Vergil's *Aeneid*. For sub-

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The chief aim of this text is to present an account of the changes that have taken place in teaching the social studies in the secondary schools of the United States, together with a discussion of educational theories and classroom practices in the teaching of these subjects at the present time. The book deals with the aims of the social studies and the part they play in the curriculum; the various methods and procedures of teaching; and the organization of materials of instruction.

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ject matter and method Miss Berry consulted second-year books following the recommendations of the Classical Investigation, while the vocabulary is drawn from the list required for the first two years by the College Entrance Examination Board and the New York State Syllabus.

The material is arranged on the unit plan, and, as the author suggests, may be used with any textbook by changing the order of the exercises, omitting, or postponing, according to the need; and for this purpose usable index is provided. The scoring of the tests is easy, based as a rule on multiples of five.

This test and workbook will be welcomed because of its careful workmanship and the flexibility of its plan. It will meet the needs of many who desire such a book to augment the second-year Latin book.

EDITH R. GODSEY

Thompson's Business Arithmetic, by CLYDE O. THOMPSON. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 283 pages, \$1.12.

A revised and slightly abridged edition of the popular text in commercial arithmetic by Mr. Thompson which has been so well received by many teachers of the subject. In selecting and arranging the content material in this book, a very definite plan has been followed, with a view to

making it adaptable to the varying needs of the many pupils who study business arithmetic and to diverse teaching conditions.

The method employed is both exploratory and expository. Each new feature taken up is fully explained. A type solution is given according to an approved method, which is fully explained. Following each model solution there is sufficient problem material to serve as a teaching medium in the development of the lesson. The problems following each solution, although true to the principle and method involved, are sufficiently varied to ensure sound pedagogical processes. Following each subdivision of the content are a number of general problems, which will serve to test the pupils' understanding of the principles and methods covered in the lessons in this particular subdivision. These problems may be used for general review purposes.

In assembling the material for this book, due consideration has been given to its practicability. Those problems having a practical bearing have been selected from original sources. Involved problems and problems typifying extreme situations have been omitted. As a special feature, there has been included a limited number of projects, eight in all, in which arithmetic is given a definite application. These projects are so planned as to admit of many interpretations and much discussion, which should lead to some research in order to settle many questions which will naturally arise.

In preparation of this book, the aim from the outset has been to furnish ample teaching material, and thus to make the whole plan flexible and adaptable under varying conditions.

HERBERT TONNE

Office Routine

By HARLEY SIM

[Pp. viii+152, 5"x7½", uncut;
cloth bound. List price, \$1.50]

Office Routine is an outline account of the procedures followed in carrying on the work of an office. It is a comprehensive, connected account of the field of office practice.

Office Routine is a library book—not a textbook. Its freshness and originality are in its organization and presentation of material—not in its content. School libraries are invited to order a copy for examination subject to acceptance.

D'ALROY & HART
500 N. Nineteenth street
St. Louis, Mo.

Business Mathematics, by R. ROBERT ROSENBERG. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 511 pages, \$1.40.

The text is a comprehensive text on commercial arithmetic, divided into three well-defined sections providing practice on all the more important topics of basic and business arithmetic. The topics covered are those included in modern courses of study in widely separated sections of the country.

The organization of materials on the unit plan saves much time on the part of the teacher in making assignments and on the part of the student in keeping a record of the assignments to be worked and in completing the work missed. More of the teacher's time may thus be devoted to individual needs. Less time is required for checking and grading finished work because of the uniformity in the forms of reviews and tests offered, and in the presentation of problems.

Students who have been absent can easily make up work without imposing on the rights of the class or on the teacher's time. Desirable attitudes are developed on the part of the student, since he always knows how much work is to be done and experiences a feeling of satisfaction when it is completed. He realizes that he is retarded only by his own indifference or by his lack of ability.

The placement tests at the beginning of Part I make it possible to group students on a basis of individual ability. The classification tests at the beginning of Part II provide a means of reclassifying students after completing Part I, but before starting on the second section of the course. The inventory tests preceding Part III serve a similar purpose. Doubtless, many teachers will want to use these placement, classification, and inventory tests for pretesting, and then give them again later as a means of judging the progress that students have made.

The timed reviews serve as achievement tests, since each is based on subject matter immediately preceding it. For the average student a timed standard for each section of the tests and reviews has been established. This creates a time goal of efficiency towards which each student may strive. It is well adapted to use in high schools, business colleges, evening schools, vocational schools, continuation schools, or almost any other type of school that offers a course in business arithmetic.

HERBERT TONNE

Objective Unit Tests on Everyday Problems in Science, by C. J. PIEPER AND W. L. BEAUCHAMP. Form A. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1935, 68 pages.

Tests to follow the book of the same name. The test for each unit provides for from 95 to 108 responses to the statements included. The type of items included are of best answer, multiple answer, single completion, and true or false. The statements are well selected. No norms are given, and the tests may be considered as essentially learning devices.

E. R. G.

Objective Unit Tests on Everyday Problems in Biology, by C. J. PIEPER, W. L. BEAUCHAMP, AND O. D. FRANK. Form A. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1935, 48 pages.

These tests are set up and are to be used in much the same way as those described under *Everyday Problems in Science* with the exception that the number of responses under each unit total one hundred.

E. R. G.

The Terman Record Form, for the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Tests. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934, 60 cents per package of 25.

This new *Terman Record Form* should prove very valuable to users of the Standard Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Tests. It has condensed the material of the old form into a four-page folder, making for compactness and providing a convenient and more complete record than the Abbreviated Filing Record Card. E. R. G.

A First Book in French, by PHILIP H. CHURCHMAN, LELAND L. ATWOOD, AND ARTHUR R. RACINE, with illustrations by A. Gladys Peck. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1935, 561 pages, \$1.76.

Aside from being a handsomely made book this new text manages to combine the best features of the "direct method" with some others that promise advantages to the pupil who is working for "direct reading skill." In the words of the authors, "The primary aim has been to produce a book that will teach the pupil to *understand* French when he sees it or hears it (and to understand *directly* most of the time); that will invite him to observe how the language behaves before he tries to use it or even to analyze it in detail; and that by means of a long 'incubation period,' devoted to recognitional

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processes using both ear and eye, will prepare the ground for the active skills."

The illustrations enhance the text. The book appears to be well conceived and eminently teachable.

J. C. D.

Shop Projects in Electricity, by HERBERT G. LEHMANN. New York: American Book Company, 1934, viii + 190 pages.

Interesting and worth-while projects in electricity for the junior high school have been the elusive but definitely felt needs of junior-high-school shop teachers. Mr. Lehmann has met this need and, in addition, has organized the necessary theory in a style that is interesting and readily understood.

Shop Projects in Electricity contains a wealth of projects and essential theory. It should be in every electricity-shop library and could well be used as a basic text in the junior-high-school electricity course.

In general, this book will undoubtedly give joy and desirable, experimental attitudes to many pupils and should inspire and help teachers of electricity to give their pupils a much wider range of experiences than those which have been offered in the past.

GARTON K. WAGAR

Junior High School Costs, by WILBUR I. GOOCH. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, ix + 160 pages, \$1.75.

During the period of rapid expansion of the junior high school, 1915-1925, one of the arguments frequently used to persuade school boards and communities that the change was justified was that it would cost less money to segregate the pupils of grades 7, 8, and 9. While there was rich justification for this argument, it was always a dangerous one to use, because the success of the school in any educational regard led to a very considerable increased total financial cost and often to an increased per pupil cost. Thus from the point of view of the school budget, it costs more to keep pupils in school than to eliminate them; it costs more to educate overage pupils in the upper grades than it does in the lower grades; it costs more to run a school six hours than it does to run a school five hours; it costs more to provide guidance opportunities and playground activities and adequate records and lunchrooms and assembly halls and gymnasiums and music rooms than it does to neglect all of these facilities. Indeed the one actual money saving through acceleration and the reduction of retardation was lost because visionless and cautious administration soon compromised or discontinued these practices.

On the whole, it would be difficult for the re-

viewer to conceive of a more futile study to make than an objective study of junior-high-school costs; for the variables are much greater in number and importance than the constants. Dr. Gooch concludes, as a hundred predecessors have concluded, that it makes little difference from the standpoint of costs whether a district school system is developed on the 6-3-3 or the 8-4 plan provided the similar advantages are offered, but that the educational features characteristic of the junior high school can be offered more economically in the junior high school than elsewhere. He might safely have added that they cannot be offered elsewhere.

P. W. L. C.

Exercise Manual in Problems of Government, by T. M. STINNETT. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 160 pages, \$4.8.

The units of this manual follow the outline of Spindt and Ryan, *The Foundations of American Government*. It may, however, be used with any standard civics book. The workbook calls for verbal answers based on text reading. It may be feared that such instrumentation of subject matter set forth to be learned and written down will not make social science any less boring and futile than it generally is.

P. W. L. C.

Building Character Through Dramatization, by JESSICA CHILDS. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson & Company, 1934, 374 pages.

This useful volume consists of four parts: auditorium activities for children; auditorium activities for adults; oral expression—an outlet for creative activity; and an appendix of concrete examples of dramatization. The book aims to be "a chronicle of more than twenty years of experience in guiding creative self-expression in the public schools of Pittsburgh."

The author conceives dramatics to be a natural mode of expression of the average child. She favors, therefore, the creation by children of their own plays rather than the "putting on" of plays already written by others. With the aid and inspiration of her book, such usually difficult undertakings become feasible.

P. W. L. C.

The Measurement of Bilingual Background, by MOSES N. H. HOFFMAN. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934, 75 pages, \$1.50.

As a result of an inquiry into the relationship between bilingual background and age, sex, intelligence, and reading scores, the investigator developed a "bilingual schedule." By means of this instrument he attempts to measure quantitatively the extent of bilingual background to which an

individual is subjected. For the practical teacher the most valuable finding is negative: "Bilingual background is not associated with chronological age nor grade status for ages 10 to 14 and grades 5 to 8." Nevertheless, the investigator does find that pupils with extended bilingual background are handicapped in dealing with verbal material.

P. W. L. C.

Romance of the American Map, by ESSE HATHAWAY. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1934, 316 pages.

This book constitutes an interesting correlation of geography and history. The author carries us along the first trails—into Florida, with DeSoto up the Mississippi, with Coronado in old and new Mexico, with the explorers of the Atlantic and Pacific coasts and rivers, with the settlers of Virginia, and then first with LaSalle and later with the English pioneers to the great Mississippi Valley. Then across the plains to the Pacific with Lewis and Clark and their successors even to Major Powell's trip down the mad Colorado. It is an attractive and exciting book that brings to life much that has too frequently been dead and dry.

P. W. L. C.

Leadership Among High School Pupils, by MARION BROWN. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, 160 pages, \$1.75.

1. What are some of the characteristics of pupils who are in position of leadership in the high-school extraclass program? 2. What experiences have leaders had in the various activities of the extraclass program? 3. What can be ascertained as to the value of leadership experiences of high-school pupils? 4. What are the implications for the improvement of the extraclass program from the standpoint of the individual leaders?

Dr. Brown has sought answers to these four questions by examining the histories of 259 student officers in the University High School of Oakland, California. It is probably a naïve assumption that these student officers are the only or are typical of student leaders, for any person who knows social life at any age level should recognize the power of the vigorous untitled leaders who, because of personality traits, either do not aspire for or are not selected for formal offices. For certain kinds of leaders, however, the study is of much value.

The investigator concludes that the leaders studied are selected pupils in regard to intelligence, scholarships, nativity, and economic and social status; that they form a nonhomogeneous group in regard to personal qualities, interests, degrees of

leadership, and experiences; that there is a selective process within the leadership group; and that leaders do not conform to types. These conclusions are justifiable only on the assumption that the faculty and community have no directive function; else, the subtle educational direction of parents, social groups, and teachers might account for many of the facts discovered better than the factors to which the investigator attributes them. Moreover, the will for power and for position and the tricks of winning acclaim and elections on the part of pupils of "superior nativity" and superior social and economic status, are entirely overlooked.

P. W. L. C.

Use of State High School Examinations as an Instrument for Judging the Work of Teachers, by H. MC V. DAVIS. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934, 101 pages, \$1.50.

For at least thirty years, progressive educators have been asserting that State examinations are fallacious instruments for measuring the success of teachers. So obvious has seemed the belief that no one has ever sought to develop a serious investigation regarding it. Dr. Davis has done so. His conclusions are that those persons who have believed that State examinations are fallacious instruments for measuring the success of teachers are right.

Perhaps it is necessary for serious study to be made to discover scientifically that most grass is green, water wet, tall people's eyes higher than short people's eyes, but it does seem to be a waste of human life and energy to do so.

P. W. L. C.

The Relations Between Scholastic Achievement in a School of Social Work and Six Factors in Students' Backgrounds, by THORNTON A. MERRIAM. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934, 136 pages, \$1.50.

How select students for professional purposes? And how measure the success of whatever selection we do make? Here are questions that do or should confront teachers colleges, law schools, medical schools, and the rest. Dr. Merriam has sought to discover answers for such questions for schools of social work, using actual achievement in the course of training as his criterion of success.

He has analyzed the professional-school careers of some four hundred students to discover the significance of (1) college graduation; (2) undergraduate courses in sociology; (3) participation in undergraduate activities; (4) the interim between

college and professional school; (5) the size of the students' house and communities; and (6) grades in undergraduate social-science courses to discover whether alone or in relation with the others they might help in the better selection of candidates for admission. He concludes that 1, 2, and 6 have some significant relationship to scholastic achievement.

There still remains the question: Is scholastic achievement the same thing as, or very highly correlated with, successful social work? Until we can answer this question affirmatively we must be skeptical concerning any conclusions regarding selection based on the so-called "significant relationships."

P. W. L. C.

Junior English in Action, by J. C. and K. TRESSLER. Practice Books I, II, and III. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1934, 132 + 162 + 166 pages, forty cents each.

These three practice books are companions of three corresponding texts, *Junior English in Action*. They provide practice and drills in the minimum essentials of grammar for speaking, writing, and reading. The authors made what seems to me a successful effort to provide interesting material. Explanation accompanies each unit. Diagnostic tests came with each book. The three books are

graded for junior-high-school levels. A mastery chart with each book should be a stimulant to pupil activity. A teacher who is seeking good practice material for his classes will find it here.

GEO. R. CERVENY

Solid Geometry, by ELIZABETH BUCHANAN COWLEY. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934, ix + 230 pages, \$1.28.

Dr. Cowley has succeeded in following a psychological arrangement of subject matter without loss of formal logic. Training in demonstration is not neglected, although the book seems to have been written with the pupil uppermost in mind. The language is clear and simple and directed to the pupil. Useless definitions and corollaries have been omitted, and the required vocabulary has been cut to a minimum. Five plans of subject-matter arrangement are suggested to take care of students of various capacities, and the exercises are graded to take care of individual differences. Theorems are grouped according to geometric concept, and the figures are carefully drawn and lend themselves to visualization. An excellent testing program is provided.

This book is a worthy addition to Dr. Cowley's *Plane Geometry*, and is recommended to teachers in need of a new text in solid geometry.

WILLIAM D. SHINN

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